

Volume 25

MARCH, 1941

Number 37

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**Secondary Education and National Needs  
Our Part**

The Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth  
Annual Meeting of the National Association  
of Secondary-School Principals of  
The National Education Association

ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY  
February 20 to 22, 1941

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of the  
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# The Bulletin

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A Department of Secondary Education of the  
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Volume 25

MARCH, 1941

Number 97

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February 22 to 26, 1941

Atlantic City, New Jersey

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### THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Paul E. Elicker, *Executive Secretary*    Walter E. Hess, *Managing Editor*  
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

## *Let Us Help You Serve Your Needs*

### **Do You Have These Publications in Your Library?**

Below is listed a number of publications which every school administrator should have available as an aid to developing a philosophy of education for his school, and to conducting his faculty meeting. Professors of education likewise will find them valuable not only for use in organizing their courses but also for use by their students in their reading and study programs. To all, these publications offer real assistance in answering vital questions.

#### **HERE IS THE LIST FROM WHICH TO SELECT.**

*Issues of Secondary Education.* Bulletin No. 59. January, 1936. 310 pages. \$1.10; to members fifty-five cents. A critical and professional discussion of ten basic problems of secondary education.

*Functions of Secondary Education.* Bulletin No. 64. January, 1937. 226 pages. \$1.10; to members fifty-five cents. A discussion of ten commonly agreed upon functions of the secondary school to be considered in connection with the ten issues presented in Bulletin No. 59.

*That All May Learn.* Bulletin No. 85. November, 1939. 235 pages. \$1.10; to members fifty-five cents. Information for principals who wish to adjust and adapt the programs of their schools to the educational need of youth.

*Student-Council Handbook.* Bulletin No. 89. March, 1940. 195 pages. \$1.00; to members fifty cents. A description of the work of 361 Student Councils and of student activity management.

*Counseling and the Changing Secondary-School Curriculum.* Bulletin No. 91. May, 1940. 118 pages. \$1.00; to members fifty cents. A description of how thirty-eight schools and communities improve youth education opportunities.

*Promising Practices in Secondary Education.* Bulletin No. 92. October, 1940. 230 pages. \$1.00; to members fifty cents. Describes over 700 school practices, telling what secondary-school principals are doing in an attempt to develop ways and means of improving secondary education.

*Occupational Adjustment and the School.* Bulletin No. 93. November, 1940. 154 pages. \$1.00; to members fifty cents. A study of 914 school-leaving youths of six schools located in two states. Descriptive of a plan whereby a secondary-school principal can get valid information about the degree of occupational adjustment of his school-leavers and some clues as to desirable changes in the guidance and education program of his school.

*The Summer Workshop in Secondary Education.* Bulletin No. 95. 196 pages. \$2.00; to members \$1.00. A description of educational theory and practice in eight colleges and universities of the country as reported by Workshop Directors and Workshop participants in these colleges and universities. Also contains the names and addresses of the members of the Association.

*The National Honor Society Handbook.* April, 1940. 200 pages. \$1.00; to members fifty cents. Presents a description of numerous activities engaged in by honor societies, contains model constitutions and defines their purpose.

*"Suggested Studies in Secondary Education—A List of Problems for Research."* 101 pages, 25 cents; to members 15 cents. A pamphlet prepared by the National Committee on Coordination in Secondary Education. It contains pertinent questions suitable for study and research covering all fields of secondary education. The questions in each field are prepared by a specialist.

*Talking It Through.* 70 pp. Fifteen cents. Tells how to form discussion groups, how to conduct meetings and how to develop the art of discussion.

#### **Make Your Selection Today and Send the Order to**

**THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

**PAUL E. ELICKER, Executive Secretary**

**1201 SIXTEENTH STREET, N. W.**

**WASHINGTON, D. C.**

MAR 19 1941

## TWENTY-FIFTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

### *Anniversary Banquet*

*Honoring Harry V. Church*

Saturday, February 22, 6:00 p. m., Vernon Room, Hotel Haddon Hall

Topic: SECONDARY EDUCATION LOOKS FORWARD

The Silver Anniversary Convention of the Association began on Saturday evening, February 22 at 6 o'clock in the Vernon Room of the Haddon Hall Hotel, Atlantic City, New Jersey, with a banquet in honor of Harry V. Church, Executive Secretary of the Association from 1917 to 1940, with Oscar Granger, Principal Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, presiding.

Seated at the head table, beautifully decorated, were the speakers of the evening and a group of educational leaders, which included Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, Columbia University; Dr. Donald Dushane, President, National Education Association; Dr. Floyd W. Reeves, Director American Youth Commission; Miss Flora M. Rhind, Secretary, General Education Board; Dr. George F. Zook, President, American Council on Education; Mr. Charles R. Hollenback, Principal, Atlantic City High School; Dr. John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education; and Mr. Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals. More than five hundred secondary-school principals and other schoolmen were in attendance.

Music was provided by the well-trained Atlantic City High School Glee Club of sixty voices under the direction of Miss Elsie McCasky. Addresses were given commemorating the occasion.

### Twenty-Five Years Ago

JESSE B. DAVIS

*Dean, School of Education, Boston University*

Oldest living president of the Association

Twenty-five years ago the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was conceived in rebellion. The public high school had experienced more than twenty years of acute growing pains. Principals of those days of phenomenal growth had been forced to meet difficult problems for which there were no precedents. There was a greatly expanded curriculum. The junior high school and the junior college were known as movements as they spread across the land. Vocational guidance was a new term in our

vocabulary. Battles had been fought with secret societies and corrupt forms of inter-scholastic athletics. Industrial education was demanding a place in the program in the face of bitter opposition from the classical conservatives. Yes, these were strenuous rapidly moving days for the secondary-school principal. He was blazing new trails. He was reaching his maturity in the modern period of secondary-school history and felt the need of self-expression and free discussion among his colleagues in administration.

At this time the only opportunity for such exchange of ideas was through the regional associations of colleges and secondary schools. However, in these associations the high-school principal was a very insignificant figure. In New England the association was for "colleges and preparatory schools." Not more than a dozen public high schools were permitted to join. These were known as public Latin or Classical schools. In the North Central Association principals were admitted but the program was completely dominated by the colleges. For some years principals had tried in vain to have some satisfactory part in the planning of the programs and in the discussions. This was the situation which led to the rebellion out of which emerged the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

During one of the sessions of the North Central Association in Chicago a group of high-school principals met in a hotel room to talk over their grievances. There were about twenty-five or thirty men at this meeting. The result of this discussion was the decision that we would withdraw from the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and form a new organization to be called the North Central Association of Secondary-School Principals. A committee was appointed to draw up a constitution. This committee was Jesse H. Newlon, Frank Pickell, William B. Owens, and myself. While this committee was formulating the constitution Prof. Charles Hughes Johnston of the University of Illinois heard of our acts of rebellion. He invited a few of the group to have breakfast with him the next morning. Here he talked to us like the proverbial "Dutch Uncle." He said, "Boys, this is not the way to act. Don't pull out of the North Central. If you feel you are not getting the opportunity you desire, stay in and fight for your rights. You can count on the help of the professors of education in the universities." "But," we protested, "we have decided on the step and we already have prepared a constitution for the 'North Central Association of Secondary-School Principals.'" He came right back with the rejoinder, "That is all very simple. Just change the name from 'North Central' to 'National.' The time has come for just such an organization." He fully persuaded us. The rebellion was stopped. This conference was reported back to the group and a new movement was in the process of being born.

When the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A. met in Detroit in February, 1916, some of these same rebels called a meeting of high-school principals at the Statler Hotel in the afternoon of February 24. Harry V. Church acted as chairman. The purpose of this meeting as stated in our first yearbook was "to develop and further a feeling of class

consciousness among high-school principals; to develop a professional spirit on their part;" and to study problems of administration. As we were assured by Professor Johnston, the professors of education in the universities were present to aid us in our plans. With Professor Johnston were Dr. Charles H. Judd of Chicago and Thomas Briggs of Teachers College. After much enthusiastic discussion a committee was appointed to complete the plans and to provide for a meeting to be held at the time of the Department of Superintendence at Kansas City the next year. This committee was headed by Harry Church and supported by Wm. H. Lewis of Philadelphia, Milo Stuart of Indianapolis, C. P. Briggs of Rockford, Ill., and myself. Under the efficient leadership of Harry Church events came very rapidly. Within a few weeks this group again met during the sessions of the North Central Association in Chicago and sent out a general call to high-school principals to meet in Chicago on April 16. Seventy-eight principals responded and a permanent organization was completed. B. Frank Brown of the Lake View High School was elected the first president. According to the yearbook Supt. F. M. Hammitt of Mason City was "secretary-treasurer." However, according to my recollection I was the secretary and Superintendent Hammitt was treasurer. When we met in Kansas City we had had so much difficulty in getting financial co-operation between the secretary and the treasurer, due to the distances involved, that it was then decided to combine these offices in the election of Harry Church as our permanent "secretary-treasurer." I have recited these details to prove that if anyone deserves to be known as the father of this association it is that promoter, organizer, and guide throughout the twenty-five years—Harry V. Church.

The convention address of our first president at Kansas City in 1917 was a call for professional consciousness among secondary-school principals and a challenge for experimentation in the attempt to solve the many problems which were troubling us. That first program illustrates the trend of thought in that day. Discussion centered around Vocational Guidance, The High-School Principal as Manager, Objectives of High-School Education, The High School and the Universities, Student Activities, Measurement Tests, Quantitative and Qualitative Credits, and Supervised Study. We are still talking about these subjects but in different terms. Examine the roll of the original members published in the First Year Book in 1917. Here you will find the names of many who have risen to high places in the field of professional education, and you will find many who have contributed much to the progress of secondary education during the past twenty-five years. They were courageous in their rebellion and wise in their planning. They builded well.

I should not close this story of twenty-five years ago without paying tribute to one who counseled us in our earliest days, who addressed our first meeting, and who throughout the twenty-five years has been our faithful counselor—Dr. Charles H. Judd.

## Secondary Education in Review

CHARLES H. JUDD

*Emeritus Professor of Education, University of Chicago*

In order to understand what happened on April 16, 1916, when the National Association of Secondary School Principals was organized at a meeting held in Chicago, one must go back in American educational history something like a period of twenty-five years prior to 1916. The free public high school can very properly be said to have received its charter and to have achieved full consciousness of its importance as a factor in the educational system of this country with the publication of the report of the Committee of Ten. The charter was, however, by no means what its authors intended it to be. The report of the Committee of Ten was drafted with the idea that it was defining the curriculum and organization of American secondary education for at least a generation. That the definition given of secondary education was too cramped and narrow to satisfy the ambitions of the American people soon became manifest. Vigorous criticisms of the report of the Committee of Ten were launched by a number of active educational leaders, notably G. Stanley Hall. The administrators of elementary schools objected to the item in the report which said that the high school should extend some part of its work down into the seventh and eighth grades. In order to give expression to their dissent from the report, the leaders in elementary education organized a committee. It seemed that the effort was made to overwhelm the Committee of Ten by sheer weight of numbers. The new committee was the Committee of Fifteen.

There were other happenings in the early nineties and mid-nineties. John Dewey organized a school which did not conform to the standards of the Committee of Ten or to any of the traditions of the past. In 1895 the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized. A movement to improve secondary education was launched under the formula: "Save the time and energy of pupils by better organization of high-school and college education." In the late nineties Teachers College of Columbia University took a new lease on life under Dean James E. Russell, who vigorously pointed out the virtues as he conceived them of the German *Gymnasium*.

### A CHANGING SCHOOL POPULATION

While these influences were impinging on the high schools from without, the pupil population of the schools was increasing at a rate which was beginning to attract serious attention although there was no prophetic anticipation of the extent to which that population was to increase in subsequent years.

The conservatism and the agitations of the nineties led to definite developments in the first decade of the present century. Massachusetts broke into the field of adolescent education in 1906 by creating a special educational commission to organize trade schools. In Los Angeles, California; Grand Rapids, Michigan; and Concord, New Hampshire, experiments were

under way reconstructing the seventh and eighth grades and preparing for the appearance of a new institution which was later christened the "junior high school."

High-school principals were hardly aware of the importance of the changes which were taking place in the colleges. The fact that there is a marked difference between the first two years of the college and the last two years had been noted at the University of Minnesota. The University of Chicago clearly recognized the distinction at the date of its founding, and in 1896 President Harper's annual report contained the designation "junior college." Secondary-school administrators were in due time to recognize the junior-college movement as of vital concern to them.

One might go on enumerating happenings that should have waked up secondary-school principals before 1916, but perhaps it is more charitable to rejoice that they did not continue what Immanuel Kant once described in a wholly different connection as "dogmatic slumbers." At any rate, in 1916 there was added to the record of forward steps in American education the organization meeting of your Association. This meeting included, as the official record says, "seventy-eight principals representing seven states."

The organization of your Association was not "motivated"—if I may use a technical pedagogical term—by a single purpose on the part of all the seventy-eight who attended the first meeting. There had been two earlier, informal gatherings of persons interested in secondary schools. One was held in February, 1916, in connection with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence. There were some twelve people at this meeting, who, if I may again quote from the official chronicle, "separated themselves from the throng of superintendents and withdrew to the Cadillac Hotel for a sort of educational fasting and prayer." A second informal meeting was held in connection with the meeting of the North Central Association in March, 1916. Whatever else is to be said about this second informal gathering, I am sure that I am right in stating that it was not a meeting of prayer. The North Central Association had made some rulings that were not universally approved, and at the informal meeting this fact was vividly emphasized.

#### THE FIRST MEETING

The organization meeting of your Association held on April 16 was attended by members of both informal gatherings. The praying principals elected the majority of the executive committee, and the non-prayers elected the president and the secretary-treasurer.

Believing, as I do, that the best way to defeat a person with vicious intentions is to get him to record his purposes, I prepared and published in the *School Review* of June, 1916, the following editorial note.

The secretary of the newly formed National Association of High-School Principals, F. M. Hammitt, of Mason City, Iowa, in response to a request from the *School Review*, has prepared a tentative statement of the primary purposes of the Association. Beginning with the declaration that "high-school principals know more about high schools than any other body of men in the educational world," Mr. Hammitt points out two evils from which high schools have suf-



ferred in the past. He deplores the tendency of colleges and universities to make requirements without due consultation with secondary-school experts. He expresses condemnation of the tendency of local school authorities to interfere with the appointment of teachers, and with other purely administrative functions, which undeniably ought to rest with the principals. To combat these tendencies, to voice an effective declaration of independence on the part of the principals, and to create among them a better spirit of co-operation are the primary purposes of the new organization. With laudable restraint, the secretary concludes:

"It is hoped that this association will develop a professional consciousness on the part of high-school men. While the association is not antagonistic to any other body, organized or unorganized, it will attempt to bring about a situation that will necessitate the consulting of principals when any change is made that will affect the high school."

#### THE SECOND MEETING

At the second meeting of the Association, held in Kansas City in 1917, the praying group took full charge. They elected Jesse B. Davis, then principal of the senior high school of Grand Rapids, Michigan, president, and H. V. Church, then principal of the J. Sterling Morton High School of Cicero, Illinois, secretary-treasurer.

I had no occasion to write the new secretary-treasurer asking what his purposes were. I had long before 1917 become well acquainted with him. I knew his views on secondary education. I also knew his genius as an organizer of associations. I knew of his energy and thrift, and I had no anxieties about the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. I knew the Association would increase in membership, would shortly be in possession of a bank account, and would represent everything forward-looking in education. I had observed the then new secretary-treasurer of the Association in operation in a smaller organization which bears his name, "The Church Club." This club was organized in 1909. In its early infancy no suburban high-school principal in the neighborhood of Chicago who was summoned to the meetings of the club dared absent himself without a reasonable excuse. I refer advisedly to the fact that some were summoned to the meetings because, when anyone made himself *persona non grata* by overvigorous speech of a type that did not please Church, that person did not receive a notice of the next meeting. I am convinced from my observations that, if anyone wants to be in full control of an organization, he should issue the notices of the meetings.

I am not going to dilate on the internal history of your Association since 1917. For some years the office of the Association was the secretary's house, or his high-school office, or his pocket. The Association was so poor that its resources were sometimes negative. I remember that payment for the first published annual report, which was printed by the University of Chicago Press, was so slow that I was consulted with regard to the propriety of suing someone.

All this is, of course, now ancient history. You who have been members of the Association in these later years know how it has flourished. You know that you have yearbooks and since 1926, bulletins. You know that the proceedings of the meetings of the Association arrive at your homes



almost as soon as you get back from the meetings. You know that your pupils belong to the National Honor Society of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. This society, founded in 1921, now has a membership of approximately half a million pupils. You may or may not know that the members of the Honor Society get their emblems from a shop conducted for the Society by the secretary-treasurer. You know that you have a Book-of-the-Quarter Club, group insurance, and probably other luxuries that I have overlooked for the simple reason that, when I wrote to Mr. Church asking him what he wanted me to say in praise of his administration, he wrote me a kindly but uninforming letter. One item I cannot omit. I am impressed by the fact that the Honor Society has recently established a scholarship loan fund, through which assistance is given to high-grade secondary-school pupils when they find that they need financial aid in order to continue their education in college. I must be content to leave the enumeration of achievements at this point because we have other important matters with which we must deal.

During the twenty-five years of the existence of your Association the American secondary school has made such phenomenal progress that there is credit enough for all who have been in any way connected with this institution. I am of the opinion that it is entirely proper and in keeping with the facts for this Association to use the formula that Aeneas employed from time to time when he asserted that he had been an important part of all that had happened. Your meetings have been the forum from which have gone out pronouncements of the first order of importance. Your committees have been industrious and have issued significant reports. You have been hospitable and patient in listening to both conservatives and liberals. You have accomplished a great work in a period of educational evolution for which there is no parallel in the world's history.

#### THE MASTER OF SITUATIONS

Having with these remarks fulfilled the commission which was given me when your Executive Committee directed me to review your history, I have saved myself a few minutes for certain somewhat more personal remarks. I have observed in the twenty-five years which you celebrate some movements in secondary education which seem to be of the essence of the American spirit. May I illustrate what I have in mind.

I know a certain community of ordinary American citizens. This community is made up in large measure of workers in a great manufacturing establishment. Many of its members were born in Europe and came to America because they believed it to be a land of freedom and opportunity for themselves and for their children.

-As I have thought of this community, I have often considered the question, What kind of secondary school should it have? My question was answered in a way which seemed to me to show great educational wisdom. That school introduced shop courses and courses in home economics when most secondary schools were debating whether these courses are worthy of credit. That school early had a band and an orchestra, which

aroused great enthusiasm for music. That school taught spelling when the elementary schools sent to it pupils who had not mastered that art. That school opened evening classes and offered a wide range of electives, day and evening. That school had commercial courses before other schools had them. That school opened a junior college in order to give local pupils advanced opportunities.

One class that was organized in that school appealed to me as highly interesting as an educational experiment and as an intelligent adjustment to an obvious social need. It was a special class made up of boys who in most, or perhaps all, other secondary schools would have been dropped as altogether unable to take advantage of secondary education. This group of boys was organized into a special class called "English." The members of the class were sent out into the town to find out what kind of occupational opportunities there were for boys. They asked employers what qualifications were demanded for places and other intelligent questions. All this, some of you will be thinking, sounds very commonplace. I may say in answer to your thinking that at the time these boys began doing what I am describing vocational guidance was not a commonplace. English was a commonplace. That is the reason, I suppose, why the class was classified as English. When the boys came back after canvassing the possibilities of employment, they were asked to report to their fellows what they had discovered. Each boy stood up and reported. In the hands of each member of the class who was not reporting was a pack of library cards. On each card was the name of a member of the class. When a boy made a report, each other member of the class made a note of the excellencies and deficiencies that he noted in the report. The teacher had a pack of cards, too, but the important fact was that the boys were one another's critics. In acting as a critic of others, each boy was preparing himself to make a good report when it was his turn. I heard members of that class render reports in good, clear, well-formulated sentences that gave in many cases no slightest indication that the boys were there because they had not made a success of the conventional courses. I have heard pupils who were graduating with honors from high school speak in public in ways that would not have been tolerated in that self-taught class.

I went to this school one day with a group of principals who had formed the habit of visiting one another's schools. As we went into the building, one of the experienced principals said to me, "You can see that the pupils in this school are well behaved and appreciative of their opportunities." I have always felt, since the days when I acted as high-school inspector for the State Department of Education of Connecticut, that I am a fairly keen detector of school characteristics, but I had to confess that I could not see how my companion had discovered good behavior at a distance. I insisted that he give me the evidence for his statement. "Well," he said, "the grass has no fence around it, and no one has walked on it. Not only so, but the mud scrapers on the steps leading into the entrance have been used." The diagnosis was correct. Inside, the school building

was in the same kind of order that one likes to think is typical of a cultivated American home.

That evening, as we sat down for dinner in the school cafeteria to discuss the experiences and observations of the day, we asked the principal of the school how he kept the corridors and yard of his school in such good order. He seemed a little surprised that anyone should expect anything else. As for the corridors, he said, "the school has adopted a rule, a self-government rule, to the effect that no one is to be in the corridors unless he is going somewhere. Anyone who begins to show symptoms of wandering or aimlessness in the corridors knows that he is cordially invited to go to the principal's office, where he is sure to receive help."

I do not want to leave on your minds the impression that the school which I am describing encountered no difficulties. The main difficulty was the board of education. The school had an elective board with some members who had far less clear ideas about the opportunities which the school was offering than did the pupils. The board did not always administer its functions with an eye single to the public good. I know whereof I speak because from time to time the principal would induce the board to have a survey and the Department of Education of the University of Chicago would by some strange coincidence be invited to make the survey.

I can testify that the school to which I am referring was a forward-looking school, serving the common people. It was not dominated by any theory that secondary education is for a few leaders. It did not make preparation for college its chief purpose. It had a staff enthusiastic about service to young people.

By this time you are wondering perhaps, but I imagine not, why I called this part of my talk "personal" and why I used one school as an example of good administration rather than forty others known to all of us. This school was the one presided over by the man who from 1917 to 1940 was the secretary-treasurer of your Association. This man not only contributed to the development of your organization during the past quarter of a century, but he served in many other capacities. He could not have done what he did if he had not been a man of imagination and devotion to secondary education. Furthermore, I want to emphasize the fact that he could not have done what he did if he had not been helped by Mrs. Church. Your Executive Committee told me to speak well of him, but I am sure that I shall fall short in trying to fulfil that commission. No one can do justice to the task of speaking of a friend. All I can say with propriety is that he was one of the first callers at my office when I was installed in Chicago so many years ago that I almost hesitate to think about the date. He has been one of my companions and advisers on many occasions, some of which would have been trying except for his support, all of which remain vividly in my grateful memory. With that kind of statement I must close. I was told to act as your spokesman in letting Mr. Church know that he is appreciated. I will do this in private, where neither of us will suffer embarrassment.

Following this inspiring address, Francis L. Bacon, Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, gave tribute to Harry V. Church and presented him with a scroll of parchment, with the inscription:

*HARRY V. CHURCH has given the major effort of his professional career to the creation and the development of two highly significant institutions. As the first principal he greeted a handful of pupils to the founding of a school which later, as the J. Sterling Morton Township High School, was to rise brilliantly, under his leadership, to national acclaim as one of the largest and best known of secondary schools.*

*In 1917 the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was entering doubtfully upon its second year. The first year closed with the new venture sadly in debt, the accounts lost, the known membership pitifully small, and the future hazardous. Harry V. Church was the temporary chairman of the organizing committee in its first year. He then became the secretary-treasurer, and immediately the Association was on the move, and thereafter progress marched unwaveringly forward.*

*Presidents, officers, committee members have made their transitory sojourns, but Harry V. Church and the Association became durably and effectively synonymous. Each of the twenty-five years, now in celebration, saw membership gains, financial progress, service extensions, professional growth, and an increase in national prestige.*

*The unfailing industry, the meticulous care, the keen discrimination, the intense loyalty—all that made the unconquerable spirit of Harry V. Church—were inextricably interwoven with the making of a great professional institution. Again, as with the principalship, but now, more particularly in national scope, the life of Harry V. Church and his devoted and inspiring family reflected the life and growth of a magnificent educational organization.*

*With deep and abiding appreciation the National Association of Secondary-School Principals submits this testimonial to*

**HARRY VICTOR CHURCH**

*on this, the twenty-fifth anniversary of his loyal and efficient service.*

Harry V. Church responded with brief words of appreciation:

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN:

This is a moving moment to me. I did my utmost to avoid this occasion, but it only resulted in a command appearance. It is always embarrassing to have one's past overhauled, even by the kindest and most sympathetic of friends. I must say I am grateful to the Executive Committee for the honor this event brings to me; and I must say I am appreciative of all the efforts to make this part of the program a success.

There should be some supplementing to the history as outlined to you. Our organization through the years has had the constructive advice of Charles H. Judd on almost every venture it has undertaken and that was tantamount to success. Wm. C. Reavis has, particularly in the last eight years, kept me by his careful counsel, from making many a mistake. Therefore, these two good friends of our organization should have considerable credit for the safe sailing of the Association. Finally, I should bespeak due gratitude to the Association for its support and encouragement to me during the twenty-five years of our mutual toil. I give my sincere thanks to the Association for all it has endured for me and for all it has done for me.

I thank you.

## The Challenge for Secondary Education

FRANCIS T. SPAULDING

*Dean, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University*

The major challenge which confronts secondary education in the United States today is obvious and inescapable. That challenge is not the immediate one of preparation for national defense, important though the part is which the schools must play in national defense. It is the challenge of widespread public dissatisfaction with our basic educational program.

Public dissatisfaction with the schools is expressing itself in two principal ways. It is taking the form, first, of an increasingly articulate criticism of the conventional educational program. Magazine articles attacking the schools, organized efforts to censor school textbooks, radio debates about educational policies, new legislation designed to make the schools do this or that, or to keep them from doing something else—all these are evidences of a dissatisfaction which cannot be overlooked, even though, while this dissatisfaction is being expressed, Mr. Gallup reports that seventy-five per cent of the people think that not too much money is being spent on the schools. Second, public dissatisfaction with the established schools is taking the form of willing public support for a new kind of educational enterprise. The new enterprise is most clearly typified by the educational programs of certain Federal agencies—the CCC, the NYA and the WPA. That these agencies should have been freely given the authority and the means to do a kind of work which the schools have believed to lie in their own area, represents an unmistakable expression of public lack of confidence in the schools. Both the direct criticism of the schools and the criticism that is implied in the support of these new agencies deserve straightforward recognition by everyone who is concerned with what the future may hold for secondary education.

### MEETING CRITICISM

I shall speak only briefly of the direct criticism of the schools. Some of that criticism may be justly regarded as merely carping or malicious. The carping critic, or the malicious one, can usually be defeated by ignor-

ing him. Where he cannot be ignored because he has gained the sympathies of large numbers of people, he must be dealt with directly. There is, unfortunately, some present need for school people to deal directly with a few of their critics—to show up selfish motives, to make clear the willful ignorance and the misrepresentation which underlie certain unfair criticisms, to stop the criticism by stopping the critic.

But on the whole, only a small part of the criticism now being directed at the schools is either carping or malicious. Much of it—and this would seem to be especially true of the criticisms being voiced by various organized groups outside the schools—is intelligent, well-meaning, but uninformed. Most of the current popular discussion of the teaching of citizenship offers a particular example of criticism of this sort. The cure for such criticism—unlike the cure for carping and malicious criticism—will not be found in attempts merely to show up the critics. Intelligent and well-meaning critics, made subject to hostile attack by those they criticize, become more vehement and more active still in their criticism. Nor will intelligent critics be silenced by any effort on the part of school people to withdraw behind the shelter of academic freedom—by school people's insistence, that is to say, on the right of those who teach, alone to determine what shall be taught. Academic freedom is not a right to be demanded, but a trust to be earned; and to assert it as a right when the public is not sure that it has been earned breeds the opposite of public confidence. The confidence that many intelligent and well-meaning persons among the public now lack can be restored in only one way: By giving those persons information which will make them well-informed where they are now uninformed. To discuss school problems and school procedures with such persons fully and frankly, to recognize and respect the good intent that lies behind their concern about the schools, to recognize and respect also their right to be quite independently concerned about educational policies—this is the only way to turn their criticism into constructive support, and this is a program of action which school people need forthrightly to adopt.

There is one further kind of current criticism of the public schools. This third kind of criticism has thus far been less squarely faced than the rest; and strangely so, because it is criticism which is intelligent, well-meaning and *well-informed*. It is exactly this kind of criticism which has been largely responsible for the development of new educational ventures alongside the old—the CCC, the NYA, the WPA. What this sort of criticism may portend becomes most clearly apparent when it is looked at not by itself, but in terms of the new enterprises which draw part of their strength from it.

The CCC, the NYA, and the WPA are not historical freaks; they are not mere sports in the evolution of education in the United States. At least twice before in our educational history public dissatisfaction with the established schools has expressed itself in the development of new educational institutions. After the close of the Revolutionary War, just such dissatisfaction led to the establishment of the academy—a new kind of

school which grew up beside the old kind of school, the Latin grammar school. Following the Civil War, public dissatisfaction again brought about the establishment of a new institution—the public high school, which in its turn grew up beside the conventional school of that time, the academy.

The pattern for both these changes was the same. The new school provided kinds of teaching which the older schools declined to recognize as in their province. The new school was open to kinds of pupils whom the older schools thought of as uneducable in any reputable sense. And the new school in both instances steadily and surely drove out the old.

The pattern is with us again—in part, at least. The CCC, the NYA, the WPA, growing up beside our established schools, are providing kinds of teaching which many school people seem to regard as appropriate enough for relief agencies, but outside the province of institutions that can properly be called schools. Perhaps that kind of teaching needs to be defined. It is teaching which has as its primary concern not the enforcement of academic disciplines, but the offering of immediate and practical help to the individual boy and girl. It is teaching which places a premium on man-sized work—but not necessarily skilled work—as an educational experience. It is teaching which accepts boys and girls as they are and proceeds from that point on, instead of pressing young people into the conventional mold of numbered grades and classified subjects.

And these same new institutions are accepting kinds of pupils who have been rejected by the public schools—or who, finding the schools wanting, have themselves rejected the schools. These pupils include in their number boys and girls, inept or unskilled in academic work, who rebel at the thousands of present high-school programs which offer them a choice among three alternatives and only three: College preparation, or a watered-down academic program, or drill in bookkeeping, type-writing and stenography. They include pupils who must learn to work and know they must learn to work, but are not skillful enough of hand or eye to master the narrow range of trades for which the Smith-Hughes program trains. They include young people whom the conventional schools have sent out armed with an academic diploma, and unarmed in almost every other respect, to meet the thoroughly non-academic demands which are certain to be made on them.

Thus far the pattern of change holds. In its final phase it does not hold—not yet. The new schools have not yet driven out the old.

#### ADJUSTING THE SCHOOL

The prospect that the new schools may eventually drive out the old, in the way in which the academy drove out the Latin grammar school and the high school subsequently drove out the academy, is not a pleasant prospect. It is unpleasant, not primarily because of any sentiment that may attach to the public high school, but because of the waste that inevitably accompanies the displacement of an older institution by a newer one. The Latin grammar school provided a kind of education that had much that was good about it, even in the day when the academy was beginning to



take the place of the grammar school; and the early academies, when the grammar schools were gone, did not directly replace that particular good. The public high schools in their turn threw away some of the established good of the academies. In our own day, the direct substitution for the high schools of a new kind of school would almost certainly mean the sacrifice of an old good which the new institutions are unlikely to supply, and which could be made up for only in part by the new good offered by the new schools.

There is ground for strenuous effort, therefore, to the end that the pattern may not now wholly repeat itself. It can be kept from repeating itself if the defenders of the new institutions and the old alike—and the responsibility clearly rests on both sides—are sincerely determined that out of their work shall come a plan of education in which both the old good and the new good may be found. Such a plan will not leave the public high school as it is. The high school must borrow from the new agencies those new educational aims and methods which it can effectively use—and it can use many of them. But neither will the eventual plan leave the Federal agencies in their present form. They must for their part turn back to the schools that part of the educational task which they are now performing merely because the schools *are not* generally performing it, keeping for themselves only that part of the task which the schools *cannot* perform.

Public dissatisfaction with the schools may be their undoing or their healthy re-making. If the current dissatisfaction leads only to argument against criticism and opposition to new kinds of education, the undoing of the schools is not far off. If it leads to an honest and painstaking effort to remedy the just grounds for criticism, the schools may gain again the public confidence in which they are now all too insecure.

## Youth and Education in Our Time

PAUL V. McNUTT

*Administrator, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.*

I am happy for the opportunity to be with you upon this silver anniversary celebrating the founding of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; to congratulate you upon the record of accomplishment of this organization; and to salute you for the opportunity which is yours in further service to youth and education in our time. Upon the professional leaders of secondary education in the United States rests an important responsibility for the security and strength of our democracy. I am confident that you will continue in the future as in the past to discharge your responsibilities not only with zeal, sympathy, and intelligence, but with a sense of dedication as well.

In my undertaking to address this group of educators tonight, on the broad subject "Education in Our Time," I confess to a feeling very similar



to that of the Yankee who was on a walking tour in the highlands of Scotland. Snow was falling and night was coming on as the Yankee pedestrian struggled along a narrow road and then through the snow he saw approaching a Scotch Highlander. "I guess I'm lost, my friend," the Yank said plaintively to the Scot. "Well, well, and is there a reward oot for ye?" responded the Scot. "No reward that I know anything about," said the Yankee. "Then you're still lost," replied the Scot. And so I hope that I will not find myself in the unenviable situation of the Yankee just described, when I set out upon what must of necessity be a quick trip through the broad expanses of my subject.

Today, ever-growing numbers of youth throng our secondary schools. At no other period in our history has so large a number of the age group, fourteen to twenty-one years, been enrolled. Of the twenty millions of youth of those ages almost 9,000,000 are now in schools and colleges. Merely to house these millions of students has taxed the efforts of citizens and of school superintendents. As a people we have invested several billions of dollars in high-school and college buildings—and the end is not yet. For it is estimated that we shall not reach the peak in our youth population until 1944 or 1945; and although for a time the school housing problem will be less acute because of increased opportunities for employment of older youths, yet that problem will in all probability persist for years to come.

Today, our high-school teachers are better trained than ever before. In colleges, universities, and normal schools they prepare themselves for professional careers in teaching; while in summer schools increasing numbers of them spend their own time and money in pursuing supplementary courses to keep them abreast of new developments in education, acquainted with the findings of scientific research, and aware of new materials and methods affecting the curriculum. As a result, methods of teaching in the high schools are constantly being improved; and the materials of instruction and the curriculum are changing with the new needs of the times.

According to my personal recollection, secondary education in the United States in 1916 was jogging along at a dignified horse-and-buggy pace. We were then only beginning to become aware of certain changes in the social environment affecting the high schools. High-school enrollments were continuing their rapid increase; the junior high-school movement was then in its infancy. There was beginning to be a good deal of talk about such things as exploratory courses, vocational education, physical training, and extra-curricular activities. Community civics, manual training, home economics, typewriting, and a few other commercial subjects were finding their way into the curriculum of more and more high schools. Occasional academic scouting expeditions had been made into the comparatively unknown areas of salesmanship, commercial art, and problems of American democracy. For the most part, however, the run-of-the-mill high school was engaged chiefly in teaching English, mathematics, science, history, and foreign languages with the hope that large numbers of the pupils would be

inspired to go on to college and that the remainder, their wits sharpened by ancient history, grammar, and rhetoric, Latin and the propositions of Euclid, would achieve success in whatever careers they might choose.

And while we are reminding one another of education as it was when the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was founded twenty-five years ago, I want to pay my respects to the efficiency with which the high school of that day did what it set out to do. As a former university professor, myself, I am not unaware of the perennial lament of those engaged in higher education concerning the inadequacy of the college preparation given high-school students. Indeed, I can even call to mind a few instances of college freshmen, personally known to me, whose preparation for the higher learning was nothing to brag about. But the high schools did do a pretty good job, then as now, in preparing pupils for college.

Whenever two or three educators got together twenty-five years ago, vocational education was one of the moot subjects. During the second decade of the present century larger and larger numbers of pupils were coming into the high schools not with the idea of continuing their education in college, but for the use-values of a high-school education itself. Many felt that the needs of such pupils would be better served if vocational subjects could be offered in greater variety and with more opportunity for specialization. I shall not attempt to recount to this group all the reasons which lay behind the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917, or to sketch the development which has taken place as a consequence of the 1917 legislation and subsequent acts relating to vocational education. Suffice it to point out that today more than two million persons a year are served in the vocational fields covered by Federal acts, nearly half of these in day-school work.

In these two aspects of education, namely, preparation for college and for certain vocational fields, the high schools have given and are giving significant service to American youth. I should be remiss if I did not also mention in passing the important contributions to youth's education which high schools make in citizenship, in recreation, and health, as well as in other areas of living.

Today, high-school students on the average know more about art and music, literature and the English language than the average of their elders. They read more books and magazines; engage in more sports and games; are healthier, and in general cleaner in mind and body. Moreover, they are staunch Americans. Democracy, they both understand and practice. Ideals of tolerance they absorb by touching elbows with the rich and the poor, the tattered and the tailored, in thousands of classrooms. Through free discussion, by co-operation in work and play, they have learned the American way of "live and let live." They believe in ability, industry, and education, as the solvents of class lines, the escalators which carry the talented to the top. For the great rank and file of these youth, America is still the land of freedom and opportunity.

I realize that I am speaking to educators who are much more conversant than I with the problems of what the high schools ought to teach. I am told that your organization has inaugurated studies of what to do for the pupils whose needs for occupational adjustment will not be met through either college preparatory courses or the highly specialized vocational studies. I shall have the temerity to suggest therefore only that you intensify your efforts in this direction. As a former active teacher who can now stand off and see education somewhat in perspective, I am strongly of the opinion that one of the important tasks before the high-school teacher and principal today is to develop a curriculum and methods of teaching that will more closely match the vocational and other real life needs of all youth in our modern day. This is no easy task. I am happy to know that you are at work on the problem and I have confidence, in view of your past record, that you will assist in its solution through definite plans for enriching and modernizing the curriculum in increasingly large numbers of schools.

It is not possible for anyone in a period such as this to talk of education without relating it to the tremendous national effort arising from the present emergency. No member of this audience can escape some reminder in his daily school life of the program for national defense. An important phase of that program is the enlistment of the schools and colleges to train workers for defense industries. Many pupils now enrolled in your high schools will eventually be needed to help man our defense industries. Many of your school shops are already being utilized for defense training classes.

The Federal Government has financed three programs for vocational training of defense workers which reach into your high schools. One of these programs is concerned with short courses which will supply unemployed older youth and adults with specific skills for particular occupations in defense industries; other courses provide supplementary training for those workers already employed in defense industries so that their skills may be increased in number and quality. A large number of young people now leaving the high schools may benefit from this pre-employment vocational defense training, and, after they have secured jobs, they will be helped through a continuation of their training in supplementary courses.

A second emergency defense-training program applies to out-of-school rural and non-rural youth. This differs somewhat from the training program just mentioned in that it is planned particularly for unemployed young people living on farms and in smaller towns.

The third program provides vocational training and related or other necessary instruction to young people engaged on National Youth Administration out-of-school work projects. These National Youth Administration workers rather recently have been members of the school systems which you represent. Some of the pupils now enrolled in your high schools may later be given employment by the NYA. The provision of this training program under school auspices makes the vocational training of NYA employed youth properly your responsibility.

In addition to vocational training for defense industries, there are other important problems for secondary education born of the present national emergency. Such problems as: How can the secondary schools contribute to national unity and morale through deepening the understanding, among young people, of our democratic way of life? How can we, while preparing to defend democracy against foreign aggressors, conserve those civil liberties and values which lie at the root of democracy? How can we conserve the health and improve the physical fitness of our young people? These and similar problems will be discussed at length in various sessions of your annual convention.

I realize that I might spend all my available time tonight discussing, in general terms, a number of these questions. But I have discovered that discussion, couched in terms of broad generalities, often leaves us at the end about where we were at the beginning. And so I have decided in the time which remains to me to attempt to make just one definite and specific proposal as to how educational services for youth can be further strengthened. My proposal comes under the rubric "Secondary Education and the Youth Problem."

A primary youth problem is one involving the need for work opportunities among large numbers of youth. It has been variously estimated in recent months that there are between two and three million young people out of school and seeking work who are totally or partly unemployed. Although the plight of unemployed youth has been the subject of a great deal of concern and some study during the past several years, and, although certain ameliorative measures have been undertaken by the government to assist in the solution of the youth problem it remains today unsolved for several million youth. For them, an essential condition of a free life is absent in that they are unable to secure opportunities for self-support and economic contribution which will enable them to establish homes and to feel themselves as integral parts of a democratic social order. Although it is probable that conscription, coupled with a rising tide of employment born of developments in defense industries, will reduce the number of unemployed older youth, yet it may be that for some time to come not all youth under twenty-one who are able and willing to work will be able to secure jobs in private industry. No one agency of modern society has the sole responsibility for helping youth to make occupational adjustments. The home, the school, private industry as well as government—all have a part to play. All of our institutional resources at local, state, and national levels must be brought to bear in finding the answer to the youth problem.

In the solution of this problem, however, the secondary schools have the major contribution to make. More and more must the schools be in a position to provide for the profitable investment of the time of youth until they can be absorbed into the labor market. Certainly up to the age of twenty-one years secondary schools, as increasingly as they have been called upon to do in the last decade or two, must provide for the education, or to

put it another way, the *developmental* employment of the time of larger and larger numbers of youth until later and later ages.

The experiences of youth-serving agencies during the past several years have made it clear that the youth problem is especially acute in rural areas. Three-fifths or more of the enrollees in CCC camps and NYA resident-work projects have come from rural areas or from towns with populations of fewer than 10,000. Even during the depths of the depression thousands of rural youth, without economic opportunity on their home farms or in their home communities migrated to cities in search of employment. The surplus of unemployed rural youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one, in the ten states in the Southern Appalachian and Ozark areas, has been estimated at more than 400,000. Finding their way to cities these rural youth are added to the ranks of unemployed city youth. And both groups, without tangible employment assets in the form of definite trade or occupational skills are at a disadvantage in competing for jobs with other young people and adults trained in vocational schools.

In order to meet the pressing problem of occupational adjustment for rural youth it is not sufficient to provide facilities for training in vocational agriculture and home economics in some of the rural high schools. Valuable as such training may be in providing for the realistic vocational education of young men and women who will remain on the farm, it is not enough. For many rural youth facilities ought also to be provided that will enable these youth to secure vocational training of less than college grade for the occupations of industry and commerce to be found in urban areas. A constructive proposal as to how this need may be met has been advanced. It is the development of regional or state vocational schools, post-high-school technical institutes, and junior colleges in which the youth from rural areas and small towns may secure training in a variety of occupations. A few states have established regional trade schools and junior colleges to serve youth from surrounding areas. The state of North Dakota may be cited as a specific example. North Dakota is primarily a sparsely settled agricultural state and hence found it impossible to provide for trade and industrial education in small communities. Consequently, provision was made for centralizing trade teaching in one state school of science located at Wahpeton, North Dakota. This school, maintained at public expense, is free to residents of North Dakota. During a special winter term of eighteen weeks many farm youth are in residence at the school securing training which will prepare them for various mechanical trades, the building trades, the electrical trades, and for business or domestic occupations.

The development of regional or state vocational schools of less than college grade will provide also for the present marked tendency to up-grade vocational training to higher age and grade levels, a trend already so apparent in those larger communities which now provide post-high-school and technical institute courses for their youth. By centralizing trade, industrial, technical, and business education in regional or state trade schools

of less than college grade many young people would be able to complete their general high-school courses in their local communities following which they should be enabled to secure relatively short and intensive vocational and technical training in post-high-school institutions. The development of such vocational schools of less than college grade usually in the larger centers of population in a state, would also provide a partial solution for the problem of apprenticeship training in sparsely populated states since apprentices from a variety of trades might come to the state trade schools during their slack seasons to secure the related technical instruction which is so essential a part of a well-organized apprenticeship training program.

The further extension of opportunities for vocational education of less than college grade, along the lines of state vocational schools, technical institutes and junior colleges will not solve the problem of youth unemployment in our civilization. I make no such claim. We all recognize that the complete solution of the problem of idle youth is bound up with a solution of the complex problem of unemployment in our modern industrial society.

Nevertheless, it is my conviction that the further development of such opportunities for vocational education for the great rank and file of older youth has an important bearing upon the youth problem. For youth's number one problem is that of the most fruitful educational investment of the years before twenty-one. Those years are golden years. Whether they shall be spent in demoralizing idleness or in invigorating self-development depends partly upon the individual and partly upon the extent and character of the educational opportunities made available by society.

Young people have always been anxious to cut the parental apron-strings of financial dependency to try their own resources of courage, inventiveness, and capacity. They are no less anxious to do so today than yesterday. And yet the time at which youth undertakes the duties of adulthood is dependent not only upon biologic maturity but upon economics and social expectation as well. Youth in certain favored homes fully expect to remain dependent upon the financial resources of others until they have completed a college or university professional training. Other youth drop out of school as soon as their parents and the law will permit; partly because they feel the economic pressure to relieve family budgets; partly because the educational program in many instances lacks practical purpose and meaning for them.

In the light, therefore, of the changed conditions confronting youth in our time I submit that it is imperative that educational services for youth be broadened and strengthened, both in terms of the youth to be served and in terms of the kind of technological society in which youth must live. The purposes of secondary education in America must be re-assessed and the program, in many instances, re-directed. Only thus can we lay the foundations for a strong and functioning democracy. Only thus can we meet youth's challenge to education in our time.

## *First General Session*

Monday, February 24, 2:15 p. m., Vernon Room, Hotel Haddon Hall

Topic: THE DEMOCRATIC SPIRIT IN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

Hugh H. Stewart, Principal of Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, New York, and member Executive Committee was chairman of the session. His introductory remarks were:

A few years ago our Association published two volumes known as "The Issues of Secondary Education" and "The Functions of Secondary Education." So that these volumes might not merely be placed on the administrator's office shelf a national discussion group project was organized under the leadership of our speaker. Not satisfied with mere discussion, an effort was made to locate promising practices in the secondary schools which would give effect to the recommendations found in "The Issues" and "The Functions." It is a privilege to present the former National Director of the Discussion Group Project who will speak on

### Promising Practices in Secondary Education

WALTER E. MYER

*Director of Civic Education Service, and Former National Director of the Discussion Group Project of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*

For almost a decade the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has been at work on a long-range program of educational improvement. First, the definition of goals or objectives by a committee of educational leaders, second, a comprehensive effort to secure the examination and study of these objectives, and third, an investigation to determine the extent to which they are being achieved in actual practice.

I shall not discuss this program at length this afternoon. Its general features are so well understood that an extended exposition of them would be an impertinence. I cannot forego the observation, however, that, in my opinion, this Association, through its work with this program, has made a noteworthy contribution, not only to education, but to democracy as well.

Progress in a democracy is always hindered by the fact that it is so hard to attach concentrated and widespread attention to definite goals, and to keep it there long enough to produce action. There is plenty of initiative but it is not easily harnessed in co-operative enterprises. There are upsurgings of thought and effort here and there but frequently they are unco-ordinated. Because concentrated drives toward goals which many have agreed upon are so hard to engineer, planned progress is difficult of achievement.

It is at this point that you have made a significant contribution. You have developed a program whereby a large proportion of all those who are interested in secondary education have been thinking and talking about



the same things; about certain definite proposals for the improvement of the secondary schools.

All this has been done in a democratic spirit. There has been no effort to discourage free lance movements, but to a certain extent educational thinking and planning have been canalized; organized, so that a great co-operate program might be advanced. A situation highly favorable to democratic progress has been created. But what of results? Has there been an advance beyond the stage of words? Are practices in the schools being changed? Is progress toward the long-discussed objectives being made?

An answer to that question may be found in the October, 1940, BULLETIN of this Association. The answer does not come from the officers of the Association or from those who are actively engaged in the furthering of the national program. It comes from 600 secondary schools, located in every state of the Union, whose principals voluntarily reported their activities. These reports furnish glimpses of what is going on in schools throughout the nation.

Through the painstaking efforts of Mr. Hess and Mr. Elicker these reports have been catalogued, compiled, and edited. They have been published as *Promising Practices in Secondary Education*. A careful examination of these reports should furnish a fair picture of the attempts which are being made in the schools to reach goals similar to those which we have been discussing for some time. It should give some indication of the ground still to be covered before these objectives are realized.

I shall not undertake a systematic or comprehensive review of the practices which have been reported and which are described in the October BULLETIN. I assume that most persons present at this meeting have given them some study or will do so. I should like rather to speak of certain typical lines of experimentation indicated by the reports; particularly of certain ventures which are closely in accord with the theme of this session, "The Democratic Spirit in Educational Practice."

#### RESPONSIBILITY FOR ATTITUDES

Much attention is being given these days to the teaching of attitudes. This is in keeping with the recommendations of the Orientation Committee. "Administrators should recognize both in theory and in practice," says the Committee, "that secondary education must plan as definitely for the development of desired attitudes and ideals as for instruction in organized knowledge."

I wish I could report that this recommendation had struck fire throughout the nation and that many schools had adopted comprehensive and thorough-going programs looking toward the inculcation of attitudes and the establishment of ideals. I wish I could tell you of some school where there had been made a careful study of the attitudes which should prevail among citizens in a democratic community; that the school had then devised tests to determine the extent to which these ideals prevailed among the students; a survey so searching as to give the administrators and



teachers a definite picture of the attitudes of the young people and a clear idea of the job that needed to be done; of the steps needed in order to encourage the ideals fixed upon as desirable. This school might then assume as a major project certain definite changes in the pattern of student attitudes. It might develop instructional material and devices, might test results and find out what was being accomplished by its efforts to make specific changes of attitudes.

I cannot report any such thorough-going attention to the problem of attitudes and ideals, but a number of schools are experimenting in a limited way in the effort to encourage such attitudes as loyalty to American institutions, public spirit, honesty, sympathy and tolerance. Usually the work is being done with individual classes rather than with the entire body of students. Promising practices of this nature are reported from such widely separated places as Beverly, Massachusetts; Concordia, Kansas; Fresno, California; Highland Park, Michigan; Kansas City, Missouri; Norfolk, Virginia; New York City, and Cincinnati, Ohio.

It seems strange that the encouragement of the humane spirit should be neglected in the schools of a democracy, for a broad humanitarianism seems a pre-requisite to democratic progress. Yet efforts to broaden the sympathies seem to be sporadic and piecemeal. There are, indeed, promising practices along this line, but they are scattered. There is, on the whole, too much emphasis upon knowledge, unaccompanied by emotion; too little dependence upon literature; upon fiction which is at once realistic and artistic; and upon motion pictures, as instruments whereby social facts may be portrayed in human terms. Through these agencies, used to supplement factual studies, the student might become intimately acquainted vicariously with people of different regions, races and social stations. Thus sympathy might be developed and the foundations laid for a living, burning interest in human welfare and social improvement. Reports from the field indicate a beginning, but a beginning only, in this vital field of emotional training.

Lately there has been an upswing of interest in the teaching of loyalty as a defense measure. In hundreds of schools special materials have been introduced for the purpose of acquainting young people with their rights and privileges as Americans to the end that there may be a more loyal devotion to American principles. A number of excellent booklets recently published should be very helpful. So far the teaching of loyalty has been chiefly through direct instruction; the hortatory or "You ought to be thankful" variety, which, while not a perfect device, is not to be scorned.

A good many schools, impressed by the thought that one is likely to feel a sense of loyalty toward an institution which he uses or for which he works, are encouraging students to *act* as well as to *know* and to *feel*. They are inducing participation in the life of school and community. Reports of schools which are inculcating the spirit of loyalty to community activities come from Abington, Pennsylvania; Berkeley, California; Ellerbe, North

Carolina; Fairhaven, Massachusetts; Las Vegas, New Mexico; Long Beach, California; Milburn, New Jersey; and Philadelphia.

#### MEETING NEEDS OF STUDENTS

If I were asked what recommendations lie at the very heart of this association's program of educational improvement, I think I should point to Function II, which describes as an objective of education the satisfaction of "the important immediate and probable future needs of the students."

Anyone who takes the time to read the October BULLETIN, *Promising Practices in Secondary Education*, will find an impressive list of reports, showing that many secondary schools are giving serious thought to health, character and personality education. There are reports of efforts to prepare boys and girls to live happily in society; to conform to social usage, to converse freely, to read widely, to enjoy a variety of arts, including music. These practices minister to the actual needs of the students. They reflect the democratic spirit in that they mark a departure from the old notion that it was the primary function of the secondary school to offer instruction in certain conventional subjects which were useful chiefly in training a minority to pursue even more complex intellectualized courses, defined as "higher learning."

This, of course, is educational revolution, and it cannot be achieved in a day or a decade. Perhaps by the time the ideal which has been set forth by the Orientation Committee is realized it will turn out not to be *revolution* at all but *evolution*. It is really noteworthy that progress toward the goal is being made, but it is important to note how tentative and cautious the current tendencies are. With respect to health, for example; my study of the reports convinces me that what has been achieved to date, with rare exceptions, is not health education, but health care and attention. Many schools do excellent work in dental and visual examination and correction. Many have proceeded beyond the stage of competitive athletics and are furnishing health building exercise opportunities. Some of them are attending to aggravated cases of malnutrition. School nurses attend to all kinds of emergency cases. I have looked in vain through the BULLETIN, however, for a report from a school which has marshalled all the facts which medical science has to offer and which is instructing all the students minutely in the care of the body; in the symptoms of common diseases, in prevention, sanitation, health habits; in facts relative to diet, exercise, sleep; which is acquainting all students with the functioning of the bodily organs and their care. I know of no school which gives positive evidence that it regards such training as important as the study of a foreign language, the intricacies of higher mathematics, or the chronological history of Europe. I do not say that there are no schools which give the attention which has been described to health education. I do say that any such school is hiding its light under a bushel. It did not respond to the urgent appeal which went out from your Association headquarters for reports of the most promising practices.

A similar appraisal might be made of reports dealing with character

and personality education; with attempts which are being made to encourage permanent habits of general reading and of conversation; of reports on training in social usage, on the practice of the arts. In most cases work along these lines is fragmentary and discontinuous, being applied only to certain classes and groups rather than to the entire school population, and continued only through certain specified courses, being dropped at the conclusion of a course, before there is much chance for the fixing of permanent habits. An exception should probably be made in the case of music education. A large number of schools are giving continuous music instruction to practically all students who can be interested. Rochester, New York, is only one of very many cities in which the pleasures and benefits which come from music are being made the possession of thousands. In this field the American secondary schools are making one of their most significant contributions.

But I think it may fairly be said that that part of this association's program which calls for a ministering to human needs can be adequately realized only in schools which through competent surveys of results in human terms, find out to what extent students are actually following better health, personality, character, reading and cultural habits by the time they leave school. If the results are not satisfactory the school will then feel under the necessity of altering its instructional activities.

#### GUIDANCE PRACTICES

One of the longest and most important divisions of the BULLETIN, *Promising Practices in Secondary Education*, is concerned with practices of guidance and with practices whereby schools assist students in vocational adjustment. The dozens of reports included in this section record highly gratifying achievements. I shall not undertake to name the schools which have developed skilled techniques in discovering the talents of young people, in furnishing training in keeping with these talents, in studying the vocational opportunities in the community, in fashioning the vocational training in the school in the light of existing or probable opportunities in the community, in co-ordinating the job-finding agencies of school and community. Philadelphia comes to mind as I list these activities. So does Newton, Massachusetts, where our Executive Secretary, Paul Elicker, did an outstanding job; so do a number of other schools. In no other field, it seems to me, are more promising practices to be found than in the field of guidance; guidance through school and into the world of occupations.

Many reports indicate that excellent work is being done in training boys and girls for competent citizenship in the American democracy. Later this afternoon you will hear, through the panel discussion, of important contributions along this line. But one need not read reports or listen to evaluations of school activities to learn of the progress which is being made. He may merely visit the secondary schools of the nation, as I have been doing for three or four years. In citizenship classes, and at assembly programs I have seen heartening evidence of intense interest in American problems and of a searching, yet tolerant quest for truth on the part of students. In quality

of information, in eagerness for the truth, in open-mindedness, the secondary-school students are quite abreast of the adult members of the community as one finds them in service clubs or discussion groups. It is truth and not mere rhetoric when we declare that the schools furnish the best hope for a citizenship which can save and continuously improve and strengthen democracy in America.

#### DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

Having thus expressed my faith in the value of the civic work which is being done, I hope I may not appear overcritical when I point to certain limitations to the effectiveness of current practices. The outstanding weakness, as I see it, lies in a very general neglect of a bit of truth which comes to us from ancient times. Aristotle says in *Politics*, "The aim of every government is to make its citizens brave and virtuous, but always to instill in them those virtues which it most requires, because different forms of government require different forms of virtue."

All the reports I have seen about civic practices and all the observing I have been able to do, convince me of an almost universal neglect of that philosophy. We study the history of our country and seek to make our young people love it. We teach them the framework of government, inculcate a spirit of loyalty, teach obedience. All this is good. All this is necessary, and I would not withhold attention for a moment from the virtues of patriotism, devotion, loyalty, obedience to law. No nation can live without them. They are among the essentials. But they are as essential in a dictatorship or an absolutism as in a democracy; as necessary in Germany as America. In addition to these virtues there are virtues which a democracy alone requires. The citizen in a democracy, in addition to patriotism and loyalty and a spirit of obedience, must have the power of wise decision. He must be practiced in controversy. He not only obeys the laws but makes them. So he must be able to look out upon the land, see its problems, hear a thousand discordant voices calling for contradictory solutions. He must hear these voices, add his own to the chorus, then make up his mind in the light of reason and evidence. In the inevitable welter and confusion of ideas, inherent in the practice of democracy, he must be able, through practice, to stand on his own feet, be his own man, and act as a well-informed, courageous, independent citizen.

In order that a citizen may perform these democratic duties effectively he must be continuously and unendingly at the job of obtaining information and sound ideas through wide reading, through the practice of straight thinking, through the co-operative thinking which comes from discussion. The school's work of civic training is primarily to get him at this job; to get him into the habit of reading, of discussion, of critical thinking, of forceful expression, and to fix these habits so firmly that he will continue them after the school days are over. If the school gives him such a running start into the effective civic life, he will go on with his civic education year after year, and will grow in wisdom and the power to save democracy.

## WEAKNESSES IN CIVIC EDUCATION

The school cannot, however, develop these permanent habits by indication of piecemeal effort. Few schools are doing the job effectively—few even among the best secondary schools. Their efforts are weak along these lines: First, they do not concede the importance of developing the habits which have been indicated, and do not give sufficient time to them. Or they assume that such habits will develop incidentally. Few indeed are the secondary schools which give time for even the superior students to read widely on matters of community and national concern, and which furnish guidance in the selection of reading material. Few give to all students courses in elementary logic, furnishing practice in the application of logical principles to current reading and listening. Few teach through continuous practice, the art of purposeful and educative discussion. Few give to all students training in the expression of opinion, and in the technique of applying pressure so as to get results in politics. The study of current problems is in nearly all cases an adjunct to the conventional social studies courses, and is the first to be thrown aside when time pressures are applied. There is a very general disregard of Aristotle's dictum about the kind of virtue required in a democracy.

Second, the training of young citizens in dealing with the current problems of citizenship is so discontinuous that it is not effectively habit forming. Students may take a course in which they are guided in their reading, their critical thinking, their discussion on matters of public concern. They are by way of getting into fixed habits along these lines. Then the course ends. They take courses which do not bring these habits into play, and the educative value of the previous training, considered from the standpoint of permanent habits, is lost. If we mean business about giving young people practice in democracy we must keep them at it throughout the school years.

Third, there is too much of an atmosphere of unreality about most of the civic training given in the schools. There still remains the old notion that students are being trained so that after a while they will begin the work of good citizens. As a matter of fact they are citizens now. They have more time, or should have more time, for actual civic work than they will ever have again. They are under the guidance of those who can, better than any others, teach them to approach the present problems of society in a scientific spirit. Now is the time for them to be doing the work of good citizens; to be gaining information about problems which need to be met today; to be reading about them; to be thinking fairly and squarely about them; to be discussing them in the spirit of co-operative thinking; to be effectively expressing opinions about them. That is all they will ever be doing. And they will do these things later, in proportion as they work in school as committees of citizens, engaged in the present public service, deciding what needs to be done today in community and nation. If so trained, all they will need to do after commencement day is to go on doing as they have been doing.

My reading of the reports in *Promising Practices in Secondary Education* does not encourage me to think that sufficient progress is being made toward the closing of that yawning chasm which so often completely separates school duty and school activity from the duties and activities of adult life.

#### DANGERS AHEAD

If, thus far in my talk I have expressed a belief that, in many fields there is still a considerable gap between ideals, as set forth in the recommendations of the Orientation Committee, and practice, as indicated by reports from the field, I hope I have not seemed cynical, unconstructive or pessimistic. I feel that the progress now being made toward fitting education to the needs of American democratic society is, indeed remarkable; is in fact, one of the most heartening developments of American life today. I think that the recent achievements of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals are notable, and I should ask nothing more than that the program it has sponsored be continued with unabated vigor.

Such misgivings as I have concerning the immediate future of secondary education in America spring from a fear that, amidst the current confusions and anxieties, this program may be interrupted. The dangers to the program come, it seems to me, from three sources:

First, a flagging of interest, a desire to change the subject, to get at something else. That always occurs sooner or later when an attempt is made to concentrate effort on fairly well-defined goals. The span of attention is short. When I was directing the discussion group work I frequently heard the remark, "Are we to be asked to go on discussing the Issues and Functions for another year? We're tired of them. We would like to take up something else." This National Association of educators formulates a comprehensive program, asks that efforts be concentrated on it. It is discussed for a few years and here and there tentative steps are taken toward the realization of the announced purposes. Then the cry goes up: "We're tired of this. Let's turn to something else." The shortness of the span of attention is largely responsible for the ebb and flow in human history; for the lapses which follow progressive movements, for the slowness with which we move forward along any line. If any group should be able to lengthen the span and move forward with firm and consistent steps, it should be educational administrators.

#### EDUCATION AND DEFENSE

Second, there is an immediate danger, I am afraid, that efforts to transform *promise* into *reality* in our educational practices may be checked because of absorption with national defense as an educational goal. There are, of course, certain immediate defense needs which the schools can and should meet. Nothing should interfere with their doing so. I favor as a matter of course the consideration of the concrete defense work which the schools may do. What I am concerned about is the possibility that educators everywhere may be so completely absorbed with problems incident to the assistance which can be given to military and industrial defense that they will get



off the scent of the long-range movements which have been undertaken to make the schools serve better the people of the nation and the interests of American democracy.

In the main the work of immediate physical defense is and must be in the hands of others than the schools. The schools must attend to long-range defense. The crisis in which we have entered is in all probability a matter of long duration. The days of relative tranquility are over so far as those of us who are now living are concerned. The young people now in the schools will do their work in an era of uncertainty and danger—dangers we cannot yet discern. To do their work during such a period, they need health, character, personality, industrial efficiency, information, clearheadedness, public spirit. They need, in short, the sort of training envisaged by the program with which this Association has been engaged. This is, indeed, a *defense program*, and if it is successfully carried out, American institutions will stand like granite hills. I hope, therefore, that nothing may be allowed to divert attention from this program.

#### SAFEGUARDS AGAINST ATTACK

Third, there is danger, grave danger, that efforts at educational improvement may be hindered by pressure groups which threaten the independence of teaching. In times of anxiety and danger, when so many people are naturally nervous and uneasy, the schools, like other institutions are likely to become objects of hysterical attack. Teachers and texts will be charged with un-Americanism. Some of the attacks, at such times, come from those who oppose the American public schools, others from selfish interests of various sorts, and some from misguided patriots, who, in their anxiety, listen to the voices of the witch hunters. I need not tell you that, in proportion as fear prevails, independence and freedom as we know them in America perish, and educational improvement dies.

But it does little good merely to complain and to view with alarm as the forces of hate, unreason, fear and hysteria, threaten interference with the schools. A positive program is the need of the hour. The American school can continue, through stress and strain, to perform its functions as an independent, responsible American institution, only if it prepares in advance to meet the threat of hysteria and repression.

Education will be safe if, in every community, a program for dealing with attacks is developed in advance. Suppose that you, an administrator, fail to work out a program with the co-operation of the substantial citizens of your community. Then some powerful pressure group comes to you and says, "You must quit teaching this;" or "You must take this book out of your library;" or "That teacher has to go." Either you grant the demands and thus surrender the direction of education in the community to the irresponsible pressure group, or else you are obliged to lock horns with it and engage in a conflict which may be fatal to your career in that community.

But suppose, on the other hand, that, in advance of trouble, before hysteria has raised its head in your community, you call in your leading



citizens and say, "It sometimes happens that charges are made by outside forces respecting the way the school is operated. Sometimes charges are made against texts and other materials used in the school, or against teachers. We have a program here in this school for meeting such a situation if it should develop. We will handle it in accordance with the following procedure:

1. "We grant the right of the humblest citizen to demand an investigation of school personnel, materials, or procedure. We do not expect even the most powerful organization in the community to demand more than that.

2. "If a charge against school practices, materials, or personnel is made we will ask that it be definite and in writing. We will then proceed with an open investigation of the specific charges.

3. "In hearing these charges we shall adhere to the principle that the burden of proof falls not upon the accused but the accuser. If a charge is made against the conduct of the schools, we expect the school to be accorded the respect due to any other American institution. We expect it, in other words, to have public support until it has been proven unworthy. We expect the presumption in the absence of definite evidence to be in its favor.

"In case accusation is made against a text or a teacher we shall give the accuser and the accused a chance to be heard openly, and official action will be taken against the accused if, and only if, charges are sustained by specific evidence."

If this program has been adopted in advance and made known to the substantial members of the community, it will, in nearly all cases, have community approval. Then if a pressure group should appear and make an attack, the school administrators would not need either to repel the attack or supinely to succumb to it. They could say to the accusers, "Your charges will be given respectful consideration in accordance with the program which has been adopted to cover such cases." The machinery could then be put to work with some assurance that justice would result and that the independence of the school would be maintained.

In urging upon you the importance of developing in each community such a procedure as that, I am not digressing from the subject of today's discussion, which is *Promising Practices in Secondary Education*. I am suggesting for your consideration a practice which has already been adopted in some communities. It is, itself, a promising practice, for it gives promise of safeguarding American education from a threat which is immediate and menacing.

#### HOPE FOR THE FUTURE

In conclusion I should like to say that to me the reading of the reports of promising practices from hundreds of secondary schools throughout the nation is a most heartening experience. The work of forging our schools into an ever more potent bulwark of democracy is going forward. Secondary education is on the march. Many of the improvements for which we

are striving are still "on order," it is true, but progress is being made, and that it is being furthered by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, under its very able leadership, there is no doubt.

The task of directing educational progress was never so difficult as today, because we are living in an age of uncertainty and danger. What the future holds for this nation no man can safely predict. But the task of guiding the nation through the dangers it must face will not be too heavy for a generation of Americans trained in body, mind and spirit to carry worthily the banner of democracy. You, the educators of the land, are the captains, the drill sergeants who are to train that army of democracy. If the job is done with skill, courage and resolution, you will build upon this continent an invincible force, and the light of freedom will not fail. The work, thus far advanced, justifies an unfaltering confidence that, though tomorrow's path may lead through the valley of the shadow, the long future will be secure, and that, in the closing words of *Cavalcade*, "this country of ours, which we love so much, may one day find dignity and greatness and peace again."

#### PANEL DISCUSSION: LEARNING THE WAYS OF DEMOCRACY

MR. STEWART: Now we come to the second part of our program. It is a panel discussion described in your program.

I am very happy to present, at this time, Dr. Howard E. Wilson, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Dr. Wilson, if you will come up here, and bring your team along, we will clear the field for you. [Applause]

. . . Dr. Wilson assumed the Chair . . .

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I want to introduce the members of this panel, William G. Carr, Secretary, Educational Policies Commission and Associate Secretary of the N.E.A., the man who had charge of the Civic Education Project of the Educational Policies Commission last year, who ought to be today in the place that I am occupying; Herbert G. Espy, Professor of Education at Western Reserve University, at Cleveland, who has kindly consented to substitute for Harrison C. Lyseth, of the State Department of Education in Maine, who was unable to be here today; Lawrence G. Maxwell, Assistant Secretary of the Educational Policies Commission, and also a member of the staff which carried on the survey last year; Samuel Everett, of Northwestern University, also a member of the Civic Education Project staff; Mr. John P. Lozo, Principal of the High School at Wildwood, New Jersey; Mr. Oliver Bimson, Assistant Superintendent of Schools at Lincoln, Nebraska, who also was a member of the Civic Education Project Staff last year.

I have mentioned the Civic Education Project four or five times in these introductory sentences, and I want merely to refresh your minds for about three minutes, as to what the project actually was. **The Project** was an attempt to collect from good schools throughout the United States a series of promising practices in the field of civic education. Those promis-

ing practices were collected in the whole range of activities of secondary education. We defined civic education broadly enough to include efforts at re-adjustment of the curriculum itself; toward furthering the ends of civic education, and to include in addition, actual methods of classroom teaching which seemed to facilitate the making of democratic citizens. We were interested too in the extra-curricular programs of the schools, not merely student government, although they were certainly included, but also the whole range of student activities, and the development of a morale within the school, which made of it a social, a democratic institution in which children might live. In addition we were interested in the programs of evaluation which schools have set up in the field of civic education, an evaluation which might help, or perhaps sometimes hinder, civic education. We were interested, of course, in the aspects that actually helped and in the devices of school administration which seemed to facilitate the development of a democratic atmosphere within the schools and ultimately the development of good democratic citizens in the schools.

I have stressed this to indicate the breadth of the survey. Civic education is not identical with any one section of the school program; it ramifies into everything that is done in the secondary school, so far as secondary schools are concerned. We went into a group of about ninety secondary schools, and in each of them asked, What are the things going on here so good in the field of civic education that we cannot afford to miss them or to ignore them in a report such as we are preparing?

Those schools were drawn from every section of the United States, and from every type of school. There were schools in wealthy suburban communities, schools in under-privileged districts of metropolitan communities, rural schools, private schools, schools of cosmopolitan character, and schools of a relatively closed character. We found at all of those types of schools certain of the practices that were reported on in the volume, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. That report was published last Fall. It was intended not merely as a reporter's account of what eight men saw in a group of schools they visited, but was intended as a contribution to the government of civic education in schools generally.

This project was carried on under the assumption that one way of improving practices generally is to sketch particularly good promising practices, not to preach about what is good in general, but to describe actual, good procedure. There are some people who criticized that method of improving education. They said: It is a poor method. That remains to be seen. That is one of the things we are going to discuss here this afternoon.

We are interested, this afternoon, not alone in the content of that book, not alone in what the men on the staff last year saw in the schools visited, but interested in an evaluation of the effect that report has thus far had on schools, and the way the end of the report, the objective of the report, "Further Improvement of Civic Education" can further be attained. So far as technique for this afternoon is concerned, it is going to be fairly simple, it will be simple if you will co-operate with us. We have divided a

series of questions into four major groups. I wrote to each of these men on the panel sometime ago and asked them to suggest questions that they thought appropriate for this afternoon's discussion. I didn't promise that we would use any of their questions, but nevertheless they sent in quite a few, and I arranged them in four groups, and then re-distributed the questions to them.

The first group of questions deals with the nature and scope and importance of democratic education generally. That is a sort of introductory area which of course we will have to deal with. In the second place, some of the questions dealt with the adequacy and interpretation of that report—*Learning the Ways of Democracy*. That again, is a sort of introductory section to what we want really to do. The third section lists a group of questions on ways in which *Learning the Ways of Democracy*—that report—has been or can be used for further improvement of civic education. The last section goes beyond this report and deals with further practical ways of developing civic education in schools.

We are not going to attempt to cover all of the questions that are listed here or even to follow these specific questions, but I have indicated that the topics and the questions that we are going to discuss can be arranged in these four areas. What I should like, would be toward the end of each area, to open the question for discussion to this entire group. For ten minutes or so, if these gentlemen live up to what I think they can do, we are going to discuss that first area, the nature and scope and importance of democratic education. I shall then interrupt them to ask you if you have questions you want to ask of any of us. After a little time I shall interrupt you, and throw the questions back to the panel again, to go ahead with the second topic, proceeding thus to the close. As I emphasized a minute ago, this will be a simple, and I think a profitable procedure, if you co-operate with us.

This project I briefly described, got under way about a year and a half ago. All of our visiting in schools was completed more than a year ago. A lot of water has gone under the bridge in the last year. It was a year ago last September that our staff sat down in Washington and tried to define what democracy, what democratic education, civic education, might be.

I would like to ask Mr. Carr if he thinks the flow of affairs, the increasingly critical character of the national crisis has changed the character of education for democracy in any fundamental way during the last year? Mr. Carr, would you start us with that discussion?

MR. CARR: Let me see if I understand your question: has this whole defense situation, this current excitement and concern about defense made any fundamental difference in what the schools ought to be doing in civic training? Is that the subject of the question?

CHAIRMAN WILSON: That is correct.

MR. CARR: No fundamental difference, I should say. I do not think that the defense needs are new. I think defense problems simply underline

and emphasize the importance of a need that has already existed, Dr. Wilson. I think they call on the schools for a greater emphasis on a type of work in the field of citizenship education, which good schools have been doing for a long time. The defense situation does not create new needs in the schools, but it sharpens and gives us a greater emphasis and a greater need, but not a new need, for the development of these qualities. I know it is sometimes said that because we are in a defense situation, a very critical national situation, that we ought to talk more about responsibilities of youth and less about their rights; we ought to talk more about the duties of citizens and less about their privileges. I think we always ought to include both duties and rights; both responsibilities and privileges at any time in the discussion of the qualities of citizenship, and I do not think we ought to adjourn, or abdicate the discussion of rights and privileges at the present time.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Is there any difference of opinion or any further comment?

MR. EVERETT: Would you say, Mr. Carr, that you are in agreement with Mr. Walter Myer's statement which he just made to all of us here?

MR. CARR: Yes, I think that was an admirable statement of the case.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Mr. Myer emphasized one thing I wonder if you would agree with; he emphasized the importance of discussing current affairs of present interest of society. Is that a point or a part of civic education that needs increased emphasis at present?

MR. CARR: Yes, I think it needs increased emphasis, but the importance of discussing current affairs, if we had but recognized it—schools and adults and everyone—was just as important two years ago, five years ago, ten years ago, as it is at the moment. The discussion of current issues in American life ought to be, and in many schools is, a perfectly normal continuous part of the job of education. The nature of the issues which need to be discussed has changed it is true, but the need for discussing them is the same old need for preparing people who can do the job of citizenship in this kind of a country.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I do not think it is that easy, Mr. Carr. Mr. Myer, I understand, emphasized the teaching of current affairs for the sake of training pupils in the technique of solving group problems. I would like to know from the practicing principal here, whether you can really deal with a lot of current controversial problems at present with all the attacks we are subjected to, and with all of the emphasis now under way on national unity, and if you can deal with these current controversial problems in the school adequately to give the kind of training Mr. Myer wants.

MR. BIMSON: I am wondering too, Mr. Carr, whether there is actually a difference in interpretation of what citizenship really is; that is, the way we conceived it twelve months ago, and the way people naturally conceive it now.

MR. CARR: Maybe, before I answer that question, we ought to hear

from the practicing principal as the Chairman suggested on that question.

Mr. Lozo: Seeing we are in a crisis, seeing people's ideas are rather generally centered on defense, patriotism, et cetera, it is a practical problem for a practicing principal what he is to do about the issues that have come up. I find that my social studies teacher, by the use of tact, and by careful consideration of the questions, manages to get by all right, using analogies from history as a means for getting by.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Analogies from history in order to teach current affairs?

Mr. Lozo: Yes, rather a comparable method, we might say. An interesting situation came up last year. The pupils were discussing local taxation and politics and "rakeoffs." The question came up in class: Suppose a representative of a pencil firm came around and offered you as a school director one hundred dollars for swinging the contract for pencils in your district to him,—would you take it? About half of them thought they would. There was considerable discussion. It concluded with only two standing by their guns. This is the way they argued: I as a member of the school board am rendering a service to this pencil concern, therefore I am within my rights in taking the hundred dollars which the pencil concern offers. No amount of talking or of arguing could get them to change their point of view. The teacher did not go much further with it. Perhaps she thought it was not healthy.

Mr. EVERETT: Mr. Lozo, I approve of this as a method of dealing with problems that have an immediate bearing upon the community and the school, but it is only one method. I was much impressed, again may I say, by the initial statement made by Walter Myer in which he indicated—he raised this issue—the attack, we will say, on the textbooks that are being used, or the attack upon a particular teacher. Now you cannot reason by analogy or turn to the past in meeting that kind of an issue you just have to meet it, and the kind of thinking he did, it seems to me, was the kind of thinking that helps us to meet practical questions of that kind when they arise.

We have found, and actually attempted to get, all kinds of fine material having to do with controversial issues such as the race problem, civil liberties, materials that were actually being used in the school in order that we might report them to you, to any one who is interested. In dealing with controversial issues it seemed to us that the use of an experimental method of inquiry is a basic method which can be used in the case of controversial questions: here is the problem; now what are the facts relative to this problem? It is controversial; people feel strongly about it. When we find evidence, is it fact or is it just opinion? What are the assumptions that lie back of these facts or alleged group of facts? Thus in a careful methodical way the issues can be explored. That method, it seems to me, can be defended.

Mr. Lozo: Do you not find this: that although the approach may be

logical, there is always that element of emotionalism present. That seems to be one of the problems that has faced secondary education, or has to be faced in secondary education.

I would like to know how we can take into account the emotionalism that may really affect the school, if it is gone into without careful preparation, without good judgment.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Without tact, and without a very careful development of good public relations in advance of the handling of the controversial issue.

MR. CARR: I think Mr. Lozo is just as right as can be, but it is the danger that comes from this emotionalism, this fear, this hysteria, almost, which is plaguing a great many people at this time. Maybe there are some psychologists here who will want to argue this point. I don't pretend to know the answer, but I have always understood that the way to take care of people who are afraid and hysterical is to give them a program of action, a program that will enlist their energies, and arouse their enthusiasm for something they think is worth while.

What do the American people think is worth while? Broadly speaking, they think that what we call, loosely, the ethical values of democracy is worth while. We hear all this talk about the necessity of achieving national unity, for example, but what I want to know always is: national unity for what? We have national unity in some other countries of the world, but we don't covet that kind of national unity for ourselves. In fact every one in this room, I suspect, would give all he has and all he hopes to be, to keep it out.

I don't think we can just talk about "national unity" and just "meeting this emotional crisis of the people." We have to ask for instance: unity for what? And then we have to say to the people, after we have set up this admirable machinery that Dr. Myer outlined for us: we are going to operate this machinery, and the other machinery of our government, and of our schools in order to protect and defend and promote the series of democratic ethical ideals. That does not imply that national unity means that the state is greater than us, that any person is greater than us, that any institution created by man is greater than its creator, but that the people, the sum total of the worth of all the people of America, is the thing that is going to decide for what we are going to be united.

In other words, I am advocating that we cling pretty tightly to what is said in the Declaration of Independence, that governments are instituted among men to protect them in the pursuit of life, in the pursuit of liberty, and in the pursuit of happiness, and that they derive their just powers from the consent of the governed, and if they derive some powers without the consent of the governed, that it is not a democratic government. I think we can fall back on some fundamental principles, and give the people a program of action which will channelize this fear that is disturbing them and us.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I think this is a good point at which to ask if there are questions from anybody in the hall, dealing with this general topic



of the things within civic education that need emphasis today,—any changes in the concept, and scope of civic education that has come within the last year or two.

QUESTION: Mr. Chairman, I was interested in this panel's general approval of the suggestion made in the opening talk of the afternoon. However, I was concerned about the really promising nature of the practice that was cited, that is, the matter of the setting up local committees and setting forth publicly some of the policies suggested. I am wondering, whether the practical outcome might not be that of inviting trouble, of crossing bridges before we come to them, of really going around with a chip on our shoulder. I think if the schools generally would invite these criticisms and invite inquiry in that way on a generally wide scope at this time, it would not be comparable with the emotional situation we find in the country.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Mr. Espy will answer the question.

MR. ESPY: You understand already that I did not put in any question, so I don't know any answers. [Laughter]

CHAIRMAN WILSON: You mean you did not have any questions you wanted to ask?

MR. ESPY: That is right, Professor Wilson, I am just playing by ear.

There are two things which I would like to mention in connection with the questions which have been raised: I would like to call attention to what happens to school people, at least in a community when they have become aware of the results of following up studies of the civic behavior of their youngsters. Some of those follow-up studies indicate that things aren't all as rosy as we might have hoped. For example, the Maryland survey indicated that less than half of the young people in Maryland were in the habit of using libraries. As I remember, libraries were another thing which our chief speaker approved today. Less than one-third of the youngsters in the country are using libraries.

Now as I see it, a discovery of that sort of fact does not lead to trouble; it leads to action on the part of school people. Look at the report of the Regents' Inquiry in New York State. Some of the facts turned up by this Inquiry were a little bit surprising, I think, to everybody. What did they lead to? Trouble? Well they led to a little trouble for some of us who were on the Inquiry, but the school people of the state, in general, went to work on a number of these things. They began to improve conditions almost over night. I don't think we need to worry about trouble, I think we should look forward to effective and successful action.

There is another thing I would like to say in connection with that point. I listened this morning to a discussion of some proposals that are to be brought to the attention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. As I understood it, in a later issue of their own *Bulletin*, there will be proposals having to do with the use of youth councils, the organization of local youth councils. I do not intend to steal the thunder from that *Bulletin*, I am just announcing that there will be some thunder

along in April, and I call that *Bulletin* to your attention. How much will that *Bulletin* be, a dollar?

MR. LOZO: It is free to members.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Mr. Maxwell, have you anything to say on this?

MR. MAXWELL: Yes, in reply to the question: are you inviting trouble when you bring the lay people into your confidence in planning a program of civic education that involves the discussion of controversial questions? It seems to me, on the basis of the experience that we had in this study, that you are inviting trouble if you do not bring them into your confidence, and permit them to share in the planning.

We took a chance on inviting trouble by asking the superintendents of schools in forty or fifty cities that we visited, to call together groups of laymen in their cities, if they chose to do so, for a dinner, or for an evening to discuss the problems of citizenship education in their own communities. Those meetings were left optional with the local superintendents. About twenty cities did so, and we were encouraged, time after time, by the extent to which the lay citizens were willing not only to permit the schools people to go, but to insist that they should go. In almost every case the school superintendents, or principals afterward said, "Well we certainly found out tonight some things that we did not know about the interest of our lay supporters in citizenship education." In almost every case the discussion was soon out of the hands of the school people at the meetings and passed over to the lay group who took it up. For example in one large city where someone had raised this very objection—immature minds, the danger of bringing the controversial before youth, postpone it until they are grown up, et cetera,—when a newspaper editor said, "I am rather close to one of those immature minds myself; I have a boy of sixteen and he and a lot of his friends spend a great deal of their time around my house. I talk to them a good deal, and I think they are much better prepared for American citizenship than I was when I was sixteen. My teachers fed me a lot of bunk and I swallowed it whole. It was only years later that I began to understand what citizenship was." The next day there appeared an editorial in his paper on the subject of "The Teaching of Controversial Issues in the Public Schools."

We invited a little trouble in that case, by bringing in those lay people. But the effect of that meeting and of the twenty others in every case was that support for civic education was gained. The avoidance of trouble, rather than the invitation for trouble resulted.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I would like to emphasize that, and go even a step farther than Mr. Meyer did. He suggested the creation of machinery by which you can secure in advance the co-operation of lay groups in times of trouble. That is when some issue arises you have machinery. That is excellent. We ought to be constantly going out to get the co-operation of these groups in specific projects within civic education; all sorts of projects such as have been described in *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, involving school and community relations, developing a system of apprenticeship for

youngsters in civic action, and involving necessarily the co-operation of lay groups all along the line.

MR. EVERETT: May I follow that up just for a moment? We attempted, in going into these different schools and communities, to discover instances in which the boys and girls of the high school had co-operated along with the teachers, with lay groups in the community, in dealing with some of these controversial questions that we find in all communities. We have reported instances in which for example, the whole question of race was discussed. This was a most controversial question in one of the communities visited—what the school had done in order to break down the racial antipathies existing between Italians, Porto Ricans, Negroes, et cetera. We have examples of the handling of housing—the whole question of housing in an area in which there is a great deal of delinquency in an under-privileged neighborhood; the handling of freedom of speech when a handbill was distributed one morning by a Communist Youth group; the question of social diseases—what one group of youngsters in one school in the South did in co-operation with the physicians in the neighborhood, and other interested laymen.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: We are now going to turn to the next area of our discussion. I should be very much interested in hearing either Mr. Maxwell or Mr. Bimson, tell us what implications their study of the civic activities of the CCC camps carried on after this volume was well under way, has for the civic education program of the schools?

MR. BIMSON: I would like to say at the very beginning, the thing that has been said already in certain smaller groups during this convention—perhaps in larger ones as well—where criticism has been offered because of a seeming lack on the part of public-school people to sense the importance of the whole program for youth, including the kind of work and experience being carried on through the federal agencies. I have recognized the fact, being one of these school people, that there has been a tremendous amount of lack of consideration of what this whole program is. But I want to say this: that I really believe that the experience that we are having as a nation in trying to find a satisfactory answer to the problems of youth, through federal agencies and other means, has been a tremendous stimulus to many public-school people today. I have the conviction that more public-school people are concerned right now with the problem of youth in school and out of school than there have ever been before. One of the reasons is that we see before us the challenge of a program that has the appearance of being a parallel program of education.

Various suggestions have been offered for meeting this challenge. I do not pretend to know the answer. I have some convictions, just as you have. It seems to me that the question is going to be answered through the co-operative effort and thinking and planning together of all people who are concerned with the training of youth. It is not going to be answered by a series of piece-meal applications of a planning program. I would like to suggest, Mr. Wilson, that Mr. Maxwell through his association as chairman

of the committee having been working on this problem, might speak further in this direction if he cares to do so.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: The buck has been passed to you, Mr. Maxwell.

MR. MAXWELL: I don't want to discuss the problem in general because it would throw us off our main topic for today. You ask: What can we learn for citizenship education in secondary schools from NYA and CCC? I would like to return to a question Mr. Bimson asked a few minutes ago. He asked: Has the conception of citizenship, the idea of citizenship education changed in the last year? Well, in the popular mind I think it definitely has. I think that people by-and-large are much more concerned now with what we commonly call the loyalty of young people than they are with their facility in discussing controversial issues.

Loyalty is a good word, and it is also a dangerous one because it means to every person about what meaning he purposes to give to it. It is not only difficult to agree on a definition of the word, but still more difficult to agree on the methods by which loyalty is developed. I am talking about loyalty because I think it ties up here with CCC and NYA in a somewhat round about way.

How do we get, or develop or foster loyalty? Well, we, especially in a period of crisis, sometimes fall back on certain devices, such as oaths of allegiance, ritualism, pageantry, and mass movements, in order to stir people's emotions or to give symbolic expression to certain values. We believe that thereby we are promoting loyalty in the most effective and shortest possible way. Personally I do not believe that. I do not believe it is true, even in those nations that make the most use of mass youth movements and ritualism. I think even in Germany and Italy and Russia, which I haven't had a chance to observe at first hand, but about which I have talked with some first-hand observers, and in Japan, where I have had some first-hand observation of youth, that these are merely devices which supplement or are auxiliary to the main motive. The main motive is that young people have a chance to do something for the building of a better nation. That chance is held before them. The young man of Japan believes that his nation has a divine destiny to create a new and, from his point of view, a better order in Asia. He is willing to give his life to it. You know from experience the things you are loyal to are things for which you have a chance to work.

You belong to two societies; we will say, one is an honor society with an impressive ritual that hangs a key on you, and that is all. You bear the honor for the rest of your life. It has done something for you, but it has no social objectives. It does not meet any more, except to elect more members occasionally. How much loyalty do you have to that organization? Very little. You belong to another group. It may not have much of a ritual. It may not have an impressive history or name, but it has a job to do. Maybe you helped formulate the job and it is still ahead of you. Thus you put an intense loyalty into that group.

I think that the NYA and the CCC have made a contribution at that point. The CCC perhaps particularly, because of its emphasis on the work

program. They have given youth a sense of doing something that is of social value, that is contributing to the building up of the welfare of the country in the form of conservation of natural resources, public improvement, et cetera,—a productive work experience which gives them a chance to take some personal pride in that expression of their civic responsibility. I think we have found that a good many times, Mr. Bimson, and the significance for secondary schools is: Can we get that same sense of what we are doing that young people in schools will feel it also has its tie-up in the national welfare? Or will the students say, as I heard one student council say: What does it matter if the student president doesn't do anything after he is elected? There is nothing important for him to do and if he doesn't do his job it doesn't matter and nobody cares.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Any comments from anybody up here?

QUESTION: There is one element in that discussion by the two previous speakers that I am interested in. I wonder whether either one of them could indicate whether the results secured by CCC were secured because of the nature of the work itself, or because of some special way that these people have had of going at the job? High schools don't have that type of work to offer now; what can they help us to do?

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Do you have the answer to that, Mr. Bimson?

MR. BIMSON: I think that is a very real question. I had the privilege of living with these boys for a few months, and talking with a lot of them, to try to get the kinds of things that they felt the CCC were doing for them, in addition to what the adult mind conceived to be the value of the CCC, and I was interested to find in a very large number of cases that one of the things that the boys liked about the CCC was the opportunity actually to work. I would say there were two elements there that I could observe. One was: they were proud of the work they had done in many instances—that isn't universally true, but in many instances they were—the fact that they had had a share in planting a forest or building a road or building a bridge. The other was that a number of them said: You know this is the first real money I have ever had a chance to earn.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Can you think of any of the schools that you know, Mr. Bimson, where work jobs have been brought into the school program, although without pay attached? Certain of the schools you visited in the South had programs roughly comparable to this.

MR. BIMSON: Yes, there are schools where the dividing line between the school and the community is very dim. There just isn't any. The people of the community come into the school and the school people go out into the community so easily that you do not have a hard and fast line between school and community. There we found actual work being done on the campus of the school by pupils, oftentimes co-operating with the parents, in the case of the summer canning program, for example, but work that was actually useful in the community itself, and the products of which would be carried back into the home. That gives a suggestion of the possibilities.

QUESTION: From my observation, I got a feeling that the NYA has tended to break down the sense of pride on the part of some youngsters.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Are you talking about the NYA work projects or the NYA in the schools?

QUESTION: The NYA in schools—if that is part of the topic.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I think Mr. Maxwell was referring to the NYA work centers outside of the schools.

MR. MAXWELL: I wonder if we could throw that back into the schools again, where they have been going off into NYA and CCC. It isn't that the CCC boys and NYA girls do actual physical or manual work that I was emphasizing, but rather that whatever they do may in the minds of some, at least, have some significance beyond what they get themselves. It is socially useful. Now can we bring that same sense of larger social significance into what we do in our schools? We don't have to have physical work projects, necessarily. Can we bring a sense of social significance into the student activities, and the student government in the school? That might be a justifiable transfer.

MR. EVERETT: There was one area in our study in which we attempted to discover the ways in which school youth had participated and are participating in the activities in the community, and Mr. Bimson had in mind, I think, such situations. I think perhaps many of you saw the brief statement describing the Hautville High School, in Dietzville, Alabama, published in *Life* magazine about three weeks ago. The data in that was taken from the files of the Commission, but we discovered many projects in which school youth as a part of the classroom activities or as part of the curricular activities of the school, were contributing to the community living. In some instances they were actually giving leadership in certain areas, and initiated projects, as in the Radford, Virginia, case where they initiated a health project, interested people in a particular area of health and recreation in that town.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Are there any other questions?

QUESTION: I have a question I would like to ask about that, perhaps not pertinent right here, but I am concerned about the expense involved (coming from New England). Suppose we can spend perhaps a hundred dollars a year, while the government spends for an NYA or a CCC project from a thousand to twenty-five hundred. I am wondering if we couldn't spend this money to better advantage on the sort of thing this gentleman was speaking about being done in the communities, than is being done on the national project, detached from the home and the local community, where most of our people are going to live.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I think probably we had better wait for a consideration of that question. (Laughter) The reluctance is not due to an unwillingness to answer your question, but it appears that we are getting off the subject we are concerned with, and the thing Mr. Maxwell emphasized.

Certain instances have been pointed out, where vitality to a civic education program can be secured in the inner life of the school; that is,



through a developed program of recreation and social activities or go beyond that, which it frequently does in the work of the community itself.

MR. CARR: Dr. Wilson, may I say this: that while the point of view of cost can never be ignored in any practical consideration of this matter, many of the schools we visited where the best programs which involved youth in useful activities, under the auspices of the schools obtained, were the least expensive schools to operate. That is, they were down at the very lowest level. The school that is in the *Life* magazine article, is an under-financed school. They are working against handicaps and have inadequate finances, but the inadequate financing in itself is not an insupportable handicap to the school doing the kind of thing Mr. Maxwell is talking about.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: We found no correlation between financial income and the carrying on of this work in the schools.

MR. BIMSON: I would like to re-emphasize a thing I mentioned a while ago in that connection. While I know we cannot go into the whole field of school financing here, one of the very important and desirable things is that we as school people are really alive and awake to the problems and possibilities of such a program.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I would like to go ahead to the next area with which we are going to deal—that is, some practical uses for the school man, of this report, on *Learning the Ways of Democracy*.

I would like to ask Mr. Lozo whether he thinks there is any possibility of utilizing this report along with the Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards, in which many schools are individually engaged. Has this report of the civic education project of the Educational Policies Committee any value for a school that is analyzing itself through those standards?

MR. LOZO: Yes, I think it has considerable value. The Co-operative Study of Secondary-School Standards is based in part upon the principle that a school should be evaluated in terms of its own philosophy and objectives—there is the key point. Many schools faced with this fact, and with the imminence of a visit by an evaluating committee, find that even if they are operating upon a definite philosophy they have never put that philosophy down in writing and made it clear. To aid in this work, *Learning the Ways of Democracy* would have a definite part. The experience of formulating a philosophy is generally new to high-school principals, or to many of them. Much time and energy can be saved if some guiding principles are available to suggest how a philosophy can be expressed. This book, too, can become a check item with which to compare the completed philosophy with what has been done. Further than this, a school can get a good idea of how to work out and state its objectives from many illustrations of practice found in *Learning the Ways of Democracy*.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Mr. Lozo, didn't you mention some experience you had in connection with putting the book in the hands of the pupils?

MR. LOZO: Yes, I had some thoughts on the idea that perhaps it



should be put in the hands of pupils to help implement the work of education, particularly of democracy.

Of course in the last decade or so we have been emphasizing the point that pupils should have a share in working out the things they are going to work with, determining the ends toward which they are working and the outcomes. I should like to have the faculty and the pupils both work out the problems of democracy together—notice I say both groups—having access to the book, studying it in the light of local and national needs. We must consider all of the book in relation to what we have in our own situation. We cannot say: this is an idealized setup, let us go at it *en toto*. We have to start from where we are, just the same as Alice in Wonderland and the Queen did. Every phase of school activities should be scrutinized minutely to see how it was functioning with the guiding principles of the school and to see that the pupils have a part in forming the philosophy. The old would be tested to see how deserving it was of holding a place in the educational life of the school; the new would be subjected to a similar scrutiny. This procedure would extend to every item of school life, the curriculum—by curriculum I mean all of the experiences under the direction or the control of the school, both the class and extra-class; methods of teaching, administration, guidance and policy formation. An educator should be able to justify every activity of the school to the pupils. Pupil-teacher participation in developing an educational process to learn the ways of democracy would be democratic and help solve mutually puzzling problems to the satisfaction of both school and society.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I wonder if anyone here has had experience in placing the book in the hands of pupils, particularly in the hands of pupil leaders, as a means of vitalizing the student life of the school.

A MEMBER: I use it as a text in one of our college courses in training teachers.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: The use of the book as a text for the pre-service training of teachers—I suspect it is fairly widely used for that purpose, but apparently none of us has used it with pupils themselves.

DR. CARR: Dr. Wilson, we have had some calls for that in some high schools in New York City. I judge none of us who worked on the project has the idea that the primary audience to which the book was addressed was students. In some parts I think the vocabulary and form of presentation are probably too difficult for the great mass of students; certainly for many in the junior high school, but such evidence as we have from the fact that it is being used in some schools, would suggest that with the proper kind of guidance and adaptation and under the leadership of a competent teacher and administrator it could be useful.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Would you say, Mr. Carr, that if a principal took his student council, and with them studied the chapters, particularly those on the social life of the school, that a good deal of profit could accrue?

MR. CARR: It is particularly true if the school is mentioned in the book—that helps. (Laughter)

CHAIRMAN WILSON: Yes, it might. Are there comments from the floor?

A MEMBER: We used it very successfully in the new school at Evanston, in connection with the discussion of controversial issues. I found that particularly the first chapter and the last were helpful.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: I would like to go ahead from the discussion of the use of the book by pupils to a question that is, I think, pretty closely related to the possibility of its use by pupils. What can a principal do in order to arouse in the members of his staff, in the teaching group, a deeper sense of responsibility for the extra-curricular program of the school, so that the teaching staff will not take an assignment as advisor to an organization just as a chore, but so that the teachers as a group will try to plan a school society which gives profitable experiences in democratic living for pupils. Have you any suggestions as to what the principal or the superintendent might do to get his teachers into that frame of mind, Mr. Bimson?

MR. BIMSON: We are engaged in an experiment on that score right now. We are definitely launching out into a program of group-teacher planning. This is new for us, because most of our planning has been done in subject-matter areas. We have found a good many schools over the country that were doing their planning in that way. We are cutting across these subject-matter areas now, and interests of boys and girls so that the so-called extra-curricular comes in for the same kind of consideration as the classroom presentation does. That, we think, is helping to take away the feeling that: "Well after all, my school day consists of meeting these classes, and if you ask me to do any more in the way of sponsoring any other kind of activities it is an additional responsibility." In other words, we are very definitely putting into the whole picture, all of the activities with which the school is concerned—that is our job, that is the student's life, and that is the faculty's task, to find ways and means of helping to serve pupils to the best advantage.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: We have talked now about the use of this book in stirring up pupils, faculty people, and administrators. I would like to know if the book stirs up the Educational Policies Commission any. Mr. Carr, I think you are the only one who can answer that. What are they doing about it?

MR. CARR: Whether the schools follow the recommendations in *Learning the Ways of Democracy* or in any other reports of the Commission is a matter for the schools to decide. The Commission has set itself to the job of getting a hearing, at least for the work that it has done rather carefully, and I suppose it is by this time not entirely secret to this audience that various devices are used to bring the book to the attention of the teaching profession. One thing we are doing is to hold a series of thirty or thirty-five regional conferences in every part of the United States within the next six months on the general theme of youth and its education for citizenship. Dr. Maxwell and I shall attend most of these conferences; the other personnel will be involved at various points throughout the country. There will be invited a small group so that we can really discuss

the problems of civic education in the area in which the conference is being held. The group will consist primarily of three smaller groups, teachers, administrators and other supervisors, and administrative officials, and interested members of the lay public. What will come of these conferences I do not know, but many of you will be hearing from them. The ninety schools that we visited will all be represented at one or another of the conferences. Another job that has just been completed, is the preparation of certain teaching materials designed to be put directly into the hands of students and teachers, in the general field of national defense. With the co-operation of eight city school systems, and under the generalship of Dr. Wilson, we had a two-weeks working conference at the office of the Commission in Washington preparing this material. There has just been issued from the press a series of six small pamphlets under the general title, *Teaching Materials on National Defense*.

Another thing that I want you all to note is that on the first of May the *Town Hall of the Air, Incorporated*, under the Chairmanship of Dr. George Denny will broadcast a program on its usual Thursday night program on "Citizenship Education in American Schools." This we hope will have a very wholesome effect in informing the public of some of the issues and problems in that field.

QUESTION: We were somewhat surprised to find out what the pupils knew about democracy. I think it might not be a bad experiment for some of these men to try out when they get back to their schools, to have the pupils write on the subject: "What is Democracy" and then to classify the responses in accordance with the outline contained in the book. If you have certain types of groups such as negroes, in your schools, you may be somewhat surprised at the responses which that group make. I think it is a good place to begin to find out whether or not the young people in your schools have any idea of what democracy means.

CHAIRMAN WILSON: It would seem to me not only an excellent practice to follow—what has been suggested here—but wherever regions or sections find it at all possible, to work out a description of the most promising practices in those areas or sections. A volume of this sort, drawn out of your own area of the country will probably have in it just as valuable materials as in this one national volume.

I think it is about time for our meeting to come to a close. What we have tried to do this afternoon is to deal first with the nature of civic education, and to agree that the basic characteristics continue, in spite of a defense practice which seems sometimes to warp the total picture of civic education out of its true perspective and its true form. The basic effort is still that of making youngsters more informed about the country in which they live, more loyal to a definite set of concepts of democracy, and above all else, more intimately tied up with the continuing process of that democracy. It was to these ends that this volume and this project were carried out last year. It is to those ends that we hope you are going to use the materials of that project in your schools.

## Second General Session

Tuesday, February 25, 2:15 p. m., Vernon Room, Hotel Haddon Hall

Topic: OUR ASSOCIATION AT WORK ON OUR NATIONAL NEEDS

The session was in charge of John E. Wellwood, First Vice President and Principal of Central High School, Flint, Michigan. About seven hundred persons attended the meeting. Mr. Wellwood introduced the two speakers of the afternoon.

### Our Occupational Adjustment Study

EDWARD LANDY

Director, Occupational Adjustment Study of the  
National Association of Secondary-School Principals

#### THE GENESIS OF THE STUDY

The convention theme this year *Secondary Education and National Needs: Our Part* is to my mind particularly pertinent at this time. I am happy to be able to discuss before this group the small part that the *Occupational Adjustment Study* is playing in helping secondary schools over the entire country meet one very important national need—that of aiding youth to become occupationally adjusted upon leaving school. I am deeply honored in sharing the platform this afternoon with one who has been in the very forefront of the fight to establish recognition of the problems confronting secondary education and who has been one of the prime movers in leading this association towards a program of action designed to meet our national needs.

For it was the work of the *Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education*, of which Dr. Briggs was chairman, that laid the foundation for the establishment of the Implementation Commission. The Implementation Commission, which is headed by Prof. Will French, has as its main function the exceedingly difficult job of helping to provide the implements whereby practice may catch up with theory,—of closing the gap between the recognition of our national needs and of doing something to meet them. That attention to the problem of closing this gap is necessary and timely is very ably argued by Professor Briggs in his article *A Challenge to Action*.<sup>1</sup> In discussing the inadequacy of our present secondary-school program to meet the needs and the delay of necessary reform, he raises the question, "Why has this reform been so long delayed, when almost everyone is convinced of its desirability and of its necessity?" His next statement is classic in its simplicity and in its plain truth. He goes on to say, "The answer is that we do not know precisely what to do." In that statement lies the heart of the confusion and of our hesitancy,—we do not know precisely what to do.

<sup>1</sup>Briggs, Thomas H., "A Challenge to Action," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, December, 1940, No. 94, p. 10.

I make haste to add that we are not completely devoid of promising techniques and practices. The report by Dr. Francis T. Spaulding entitled *High School and Life*<sup>2</sup> and the companion reports of the Regents' Inquiry provide a rich source of thought-provoking material and of specific recommendations. Other studies and reports, too numerous to mention, have all made their contributions. More needed to be done, however. The Committee on Orientation through its *Issues and Functions*, the Regents' Inquiry, and other sources have laid this broad foundation of principles upon which to act. The problem of precisely what to do still remained.

The Implementation Commission recognized the existence of the problem in its entirety not only for that phase dealing with occupational adjustment but with the complete problem of developing social competence on the part of our school-leaving youth. The Commission decided, however, that it would first undertake the job of implementing the work of the secondary-school in the area of occupational adjustment. This field was selected because of several reasons. First the problem of providing a suitable program of education for the non-academic pupils, or educationally neglected if you prefer, was one which secondary-school principals all over the country recognized as of pressing importance. And one of the basic and most important elements in a suitable educational program for this group is that of attempting to insure satisfactory post-school occupational adjustment. Again, this area seemed to be a more tangible one in which to work than in some other areas. Accordingly the Commission asked for and received a grant from the General Education Board to conduct an investigation designed to uncover leads as to promising techniques and practices which could be introduced into secondary schools for the purpose of implementing their educational programs in this field of occupational adjustment. This, briefly, was the genesis of the Occupational Adjustment Study.

#### THE 1939-40 PHASE: THE EVALUATION OF PRACTICE

If you are interested in the details of the Study, its objectives, procedures, and findings, you may find them in the November BULLETIN of our Association, *Occupational Adjustment and The School*, which is the report of the 1939-40 phase of our work. Undoubtedly many of you have read that BULLETIN, but at the risk of being repetitious I am going to present briefly some of its main aspects. At the outset we established two very specific objectives.

1. We wanted to get leads on techniques and practices which could be introduced into the school to make more effective the occupational adjustment of those youth who either withdrew or were graduated from secondary school and did not continue with further formal education.
2. We were interested in developing a plan whereby any secondary school could evaluate the occupational adjustments made by its *leavers* and in the light of such an evaluation derive inferences as to what it might do to improve its program.

<sup>2</sup>Spaulding, Francis T., *High School and Life*. The Regents' Inquiry, New York: McGraw-Hill Co. 1938.

The second objective was included because it was recognized that no single study in this area could be definitive in its findings for all schools, or at least our study, limited as to resources and time available, could not provide a complete answer to the first objective. But more of the second objective later.

Our chief purpose in attempting to accomplish the first objective was to show that the discovery and evaluation of techniques and practices were not beyond the bounds of reasonable possibility. The best way to find out whether such a purpose is practicable is not to argue and philosophize about it. Rather, it is to demonstrate that techniques, instruments, and procedures for handling such a problem can be evolved, actually tried out, and produce results in terms of tangible and sound findings. That demonstration was the main concern of the study in 1939-1940.

The establishing of casual relationships, even of leads as to casual relationships, between the kind of schooling to which a youth is exposed and his occupational adjustment is a hard job. I do not need to elaborate upon the difficulties involved in deciding upon what criteria to use to evaluate occupational adjustment, in applying those criteria to get an evaluation of the occupational adjustment of a given youth or a group of youths, and in relating the evaluations made to the school practices to which the youth had been exposed while taking in account other possible factors of influence. You may judge for yourself the extent to which we overcame those difficulties by reading the report, *Occupational Adjustment and The School*. But I do want to tell you something of our procedures and findings.

We selected forty-two specific ways of behaving upon which to evaluate the occupational adjustment of a given youth. The judgments with respect to these ways of behaving were made by trained interviewers after comprehensive interviews with both the youth and the employer, if any. In addition we received as much information as we could concerning the kinds of schooling to which the youth had been exposed and the kind of community in which he lived, went to school, and worked. Our sample consisted of approximately one thousand youth carefully selected from a larger group of over five thousand school-leavers who had been out of school from one and one-half to five and one-half years and who had not continued with further formal schooling.

Besides collecting some interesting factual data concerning the amount and kind of employment and opinions held by youth and employers, we were able as a result of applying certain methods of analysis to arrive at some conclusions concerning the values of various school practices for effecting post-school occupational adjustment. It must be emphasized that these conclusions are but tentative and sharply limited in their application. With only six schools to study a limitation was placed upon the kind and variety of practices to study. This is not out of harmony with the essential purpose of last year's work which, as stated before, was to demonstrate that techniques, instruments, and procedures could be developed.

We found, upon examining and analyzing the collected data and



judgments, when youth are given opportunities to assume self-direction and self-responsibility in situations which are as like real job situations as they can possibly be made that youth benefit thereby in their actual adjustments to real jobs. They stand up better under criticism, they co-operate better in extra-work activities about their place of employment, they demonstrate more interest in their immediate duties, they can be trusted to work alone without supervision more than others, they are more likely to display interest in the success of larger aspects of their employment beyond their immediate participation.

You may be interested in knowing what specific "opportunities for self-direction and self-responsibility in situations which are as like real job situations as they can possibly be made" have been investigated. Permit me to describe just one. It is not anything startling nor is it necessarily very new. Probably many of you are doing the same or very similar things in your own schools. However, you may be encouraged to know we actually found some evidence that this practice or similar ones seem to have definite usefulness. I make haste to add that the illustration I am providing should not necessarily be adopted in wholesale fashion in all schools. It is simply an illustration of the general principle. Many of you may have in your schools even more ingenious methods of providing opportunities for self-direction and self-responsibility. Undoubtedly some of you do. Moreover this particular illustration may not even be applicable to your school. Again quoting from Prof. Briggs' article *A Challenge to Action*, "... nobody can give immediate and lasting detailed specifications."

One of the practices which provided a real job situation was that undertaken by the commercial department of one of the schools studied. The department head had established a school bank which served the various school activities. The bank was actually incorporated under the state laws. A model counter with cages had been built and was being used. Desks, office machinery, various forms were being used directly in connection with the business of the bank. The pupils working in this bank were given complete control. The department head occasionally audited their books just as a regular bank examiner does in the usual commercial bank. Pupils handled the money, carried it for safe-keeping at the end of the day to the town bank. The various commercial operations involved were carried on directly by the pupils. Most of the pupils of the commercial curriculum in this school had work experience in this bank. Other practices of a similar nature were carried on by the commercial department of this school.

It is interesting to note that when we asked the youths their opinion on their readiness for their present jobs we received a high percentage of answers from the youth of this school which said "Yes—because of skills acquired in high school." When we asked the youth what specific experiences they had which helped them in their occupational adjustment we found that "the school bank" appeared frequently as an answer for the youth of this school.

I could go on to quote evidence and provide illustrations that definite



attempts at instructing youths in planning and self-appraisal (which are closely related) through such means as individual counseling, group guidance, a comprehensive testing program, an exploratory program, and an enlistment of the entire faculty in helping to guide pupils are practices which seem helpful. But time is limited and I refer you to the report *Occupational Adjustment and The School* if you are interested in further details.

#### THE 1940-41 PHASE: THE FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMS

I should like to spend what remaining time there is at my disposal in a discussion of our second objective for the Occupational Adjustment Study and what work there is being done in connection with it this year. You recall our second objective had to do with the development of a follow-up plan that could be used by schools to evaluate their own occupational adjustment programs. The 1939-40 phase not only served to get leads on desirable practices but also as an experimental tryout of various procedures in follow-up work. Based upon our experiences during 1939-40 and upon statistical evidence as to the reliability of our instruments we evolved what we are calling *The Occupational Follow-up and Adjustment Service Plan*.

Before providing details concerning this plan and to what extent and how successfully it is being used throughout the country, allow me to present some evidence gathered during the 1939-40 phase of our work which, it seems to me, justifies a comprehensive follow-up program.

We made a distribution of the youth studied by the curriculum which they had pursued during their last two years in school and by their jobs. Some interesting relationships were revealed which are not uncommon as revealed also by the Maryland, New York and Massachusetts studies. Of the youth who took this commercial curriculum only forty-six and two-tenths per cent were in clerical, sales, and kindred occupations. About thirty per cent of those who had taken the industrial and general arts curriculum were engaged in clerical, sales, and kindred occupations. Similar relationships between curriculums pursued and jobs held occur throughout. For a particular school to uncover such information for itself should raise some interesting questions. Should all youth be permitted to take any kind of training they want? Should the school train more pupils for particular occupations than can find jobs in these occupations? What of the economic waste in haphazard occupational training and lack of adequate in-school vocational guidance?

Not only is there economic waste but frequently there is danger of subsequent emotional upset. We interviewed a twenty-two-year-old youth who was employed as a successful skilled machinist. He had been employed ninety-two per cent of the time since leaving school at wages ranging from eight dollars to forty dollars per week. His father, a successful machinist, had secured the initial apprenticeship for him. He was a graduate of the commercial curriculum with extremely low marks and was very much dissatisfied with his occupational adjustment because he did not have a "white-collar" job. His dissatisfaction with his occupational adjustment was

so intense and disturbed him so much emotionally that he required psychiatric treatment and actually was having such treatment at the time of the interview. This is, of course, an extreme case. But there were many others of a lesser degree. For not only is there considerable economic waste in haphazard occupational training but there is considerable danger of subsequent emotional upset. In order for the school to be intelligently aware of the occupational opportunities open to and jobs held by its school-leavers, a continuous follow-up study is essential.

A second conclusion is that in addition to more realistic occupational training within the school, it is desirable to provide a post-school counseling service. For no matter how carefully and realistically the school may attempt to provide guidance and job training, it can never expect to do a final and perfect piece of work in these areas. The imperfections of present or near future tools and techniques not only make it difficult, but the very nature of our economic life with its constant changes makes it almost impossible to do a final and perfect job. One must always expect a certain amount of discrepancy between school training and jobs held. Such a discrepancy may be considerably reduced but probably never eliminated completely.

The great majority of the youth we interviewed were pleased at receiving some attention through the school and many expressed the belief that such an action ought to have been initiated before. Our interviewers reported that the youth were keenly interested in the questions asked and very often sought advice and counsel from the interviewer. Interest in a post-school counseling service exists among youth. Such an interest needs only to be capitalized on.

We made distributions of the amount of employment enjoyed by the youth for each succeeding year out of school. During the first year out of school, eighteen per cent of the youth had worked only three months or less, but for those who had been out for their fifth year, there was about one per cent who had worked only three months or less. The mean number of months of employment during the first year out was seven and seven-tenths, during the fifth year out was ten and five-tenths. To some extent this indicates that amount of employment increases with time out of school. It must be remembered that the first year out of school for those who are not out five and one-half years was back in 1934-35 during which time there was much less employment for all. The general trend is so strong, however, that it is safe to conclude that amount of employment definitely increases with time out of school. This does not assume that time out of school is the direct cause for increased employment and that all a youth has to do is to wait long enough and he will secure employment. *It does indicate, however, that schools cannot be content with one year follow-up studies upon which to base conclusions as to the amount and kind of employment of their youth and that follow-up periods for approximately five years are necessary if any sound inferences are to be drawn with respect to modifications of the school program.*

## PROGRESS TO DATE

About twenty-two per cent of the youth studied had left their first jobs because of undesirable pay, working conditions, or dislike for the work; about twenty-five per cent had to leave their jobs because of slack business conditions or the ending of a temporary job. As compared with this total of forty-seven per cent, we found that only ten per cent had considered such matters as pay, permanency of employment, advancement and interest when taking their first job. More careful attention to this problem of the first job while the youth is still in school and greater attention to proper placement at the time of school-leaving undoubtedly would have improved conditions to a significant degree. But an active policy of providing continuous service to the youth once they have left is necessary to supplement any work done while the youth are still in school. A follow-up fact-finding survey of the youth ought, also, to be carried on to find out some of these things. It would seem that if the school is to do anything at all about occupational adjustment, it should make a serious effort to bridge the gap between school-leaving and eventual occupational adjustment through doing all that it can to see to it that the first jobs which youth enter upon are reasonably in harmony with their abilities and interests.

Both the actual jobs held by the youth and the occupations into which they might reasonably expect to go differ in several significant respects from their expected eventual occupations. This difference was evident even though we tried to get the youth to express their occupational choices as realistically as possible. There were, of course, individual exceptions. We found that almost half of the youth were expecting to enter chosen occupations without any realistic consideration as to why they believed so. We found that slightly over one-half of the youth either had decided upon their selected occupations since leaving high school or were still undecided. It may be desirable to have a postponement of the decision for many youth until after they have had some work experiences. But the fact that such a large percentage exists argues very strongly for the provision of some kind of follow-up counseling service to aid youth once they have left the school.

One problem which may arise and which needs attention is that of the mobility of youth. How many move away from the community? Would it not be impossible to provide counseling service for this group? Undoubtedly mobility varies at different times and in different sections of the country, but we found that the number of youth remaining in their original communities amounted to about ninety-three per cent!

Other data could be quoted concerning the kinds of training taken and planned on, the relationship between planning and school and work experiences to substantiate the need for a post-school follow-up and adjustment-service plan for all school-leavers. Or at least these data from our study and those of the Maryland, Massachusetts, New York and other studies would indicate that the condition is fairly wide-spread. As school men you ought to be and undoubtedly are interested in knowing whether your school-leavers would provide the same kind of data. Certainly if they did you

would be obliged to draw certain conclusions and act accordingly.

Here is definitely a place at which practice can begin to catch up with theory. We are providing, as I have stated before, an *Occupational Follow-Up and Adjustment Service Plan* which is designed to help bridge this gap. As members of the Principals' Association you have already received samples of the instruments and summaries of this Plan so that I need not go into detail. As you know there is a manual provided giving complete and detailed instructions for its use.

The instruments and procedures will provide information basic to a continuous appraisal of that aspect of the school program aimed at occupational adjustment, and should indicate areas in the curriculum needing revision. They will also provide a means of appraising given practices and techniques which are employed by the school for the purpose of ensuring better occupational adjustment on the part of its school-leavers. The introduction of new practices or techniques may be suggested, and these in turn can be subjected to a continuous evaluation as proposed by the program. In this same connection, the facts gathered will be particularly important for "selling" changes in the school program to the community, and as a source of material for the public relations program.

I should like to emphasize that a superficial examination of the Plan provided may lead to the supposition that it is impracticable or too complex for ordinary usage. A careful reading of the manual will show this not to be so. Rather the Plan has been explained in great detail in an effort to anticipate all possible difficulties. It is complete and detailed rather than complex. Moreover, it has been flexibly constructed so that only parts of it may be put into operation as the given school sees fit.

Since the Plan was made public and offered for sale last November, approximately one hundred and forty schools in thirty-six states have purchased eighty thousand forms and two hundred fifty manuals, and the flow of orders has not stopped. Progress reports from many of these schools plus staff visits indicate that the plan is being used successfully. It is as yet too early to report on evaluations made through the use of the Plan or how it has provided clues for the sound modification of school practice. But there is every reason to believe that these will follow.

#### RELATIONSHIP TO NATIONAL DEFENSE NEEDS

I have not made any definite effort to show a relationship between the use of this Plan and national defense purposes. It is not as immediately and directly related to national defense needs as are the many programs of vocational education now in existence under the sponsorship of various federal, state, and local agencies. But it is related to national defense from a long-range point of view. For it is the youth of America who will be called upon to do the actual fighting if such becomes necessary, which we all fervently hope and pray does not come to pass. Youth which succeeds in securing successful occupational adjustment in our democracy is more likely to be willing to fight for its maintenance than youth which is disappointed, disillusioned, and bitter. Moreover, as we all know, defense means far more

than actual military combat. It means an economy that produces. Well adjusted workers are those who are more likely to produce the quality and quantity of goods needed. Again, a sounder economy better able to stand the stress and strain of constant economic warfare is more likely to be arrived at with well rather than poorly adjusted workers.

But the purpose of our follow-up plan is essentially a long-range one. It is a purpose upon which I believe the great majority of school men are in essential agreement and which I believe they will accomplish ultimately in the democratic way. And that purpose is the continuous and favorable flow of youth through the difficult transition period from school-leaving to the goal of successful occupational adjustment.

## When Night Prevails

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"When night prevails," says the Cock in Rostrand's *Chanticleer*, "then it is fine to think of the light." It is also wise.

It is night now all over the world. Even in the United States, blessed by nature and by the fruits of genius and labor and long protected by geographic isolation, the gloom of the past decade merges with the menacing gloom of the impending years. Our nation has been through the valley of the shadow; and just when it felt that it was again climbing into the sunshine of normal economic and social life, a deeper and more lasting night is threatened by forces outside our borders and beyond our control.

Some feel that for the threat to our future we are not altogether without blame. After Versailles our people abandoned the active fight for democracy, apparently thinking, if they thought of it at all with the seriousness necessary, that it would take care of itself, that other nations could without help develop its principles by themselves, as we had done, and make them work effectively alongside the traditions of other types of governments and of social relations. An imposed or a partly understood democracy did not flourish on alien soil. After struggling without the active encouragement and help that might have come from the country in which it had developed and flourished, it everywhere withered and was uprooted. Turning from the first world war, we had a general feeling that we had made the world safe for democracy and that our duty was done. Busied with restoring our economic fortunes, we neither exercised ourselves to re-establish in our own country an understanding and a faith in democracy, a recurrent challenge to every generation, nor to make it work with such obvious success that its superiority to other forms of government and society was obvious to ourselves as well as to others.

### PREPARING FOR WAR

In the shadow of the new night that is closing down over us we are preparing again, actively and hopefully, for a military struggle that will preserve the light of civilization as we have known it and as we would

have it. In a sense we are already in the military war: even though the blood of our sons is not being shed, much of our economic and industrial life is redirected to those activities that cannot possibly promote permanent prosperity and happiness.

#### A WAR OF IDEALS

Whether or not we become engaged actively in a military contest, we should recognize that we are already in a war of ideals, as we always have been and as we always shall be. Without a consciousness of the menace, without the mobilization of our forces, and without preparing and using our most effective weapons, democracy is enduring a continuous assault. all the more dangerous because it is not generally perceived. The threat of military defeat is occasional and the effects on the slow calendar of time are transient; but the threat to the effectiveness of democracy and even to its survival is unending, and the effects of its weakening or destruction are of long duration.

In this war of ideals democracy is on the defensive. Its enemies have decided with great definiteness exactly what they want; they have converted almost all of their people whom they have not confined, exiled, or "liquidated" to such an approval of their ideals as results in work and willing sacrifice; they have laid plans skilfully and have carried them out with ingenuity and persistence. This definitely purposeful organization, this complete preparation, this effective program to make a nation not only understand but also to be a devoted part of progress as they see it, this persistence—all set up a threat and an active offensive that democracy cannot withstand without similarly skilful, complete, and continuing efforts to promote the ideals to which we profess devotion.

Democracy, on the other hand, has been largely passive. It has not understood its danger; it has not accepted the challenge to fight for its preservation and promotion. It is not sufficient to declare that men are free; it is necessary to make them not only competent but also eager to take advantage of their freedom, to strive eternally and effectively toward the clearly seen and eagerly desired goal of a liberated richer, happier, life.

The plain fact of the matter is that as a people we do not today take democracy seriously. The public at large does not know what its essential meanings are. They have repeated the slogan without an understanding of the principles of the ideal and the implications, in responsibilities as in its rights, to which it leads. With long use the edges of its meaning have lost their sharpness, so that for each generation with new conditions and new problems it needs to be reminded. Democracy has been cited as a justification for non-sensical, unsound, and outrageous proposals; it has been mouthed by demagogues for their selfish ends. But nevertheless it is the foundation of all that we hold highest and most sacred. It stands for an ideal that is the hope of the world. It is a beacon that lights the road to political, social, economic, and industrial progress. It is worth fighting for.



## STRENGTH IN DEFINED DEMOCRACY

How can democracy defend itself against the effective war that is now being waged against it unless its people know what it is and what it implies? We know what we hate better than what we love. We hate more fiercely than we love ardently. Hate impels us more consistently and more effectively to action than love does. It is more dramatic, more blood-stirring. It is not hard to hate totalitarianism, which we personify in the figure of its leaders. But we do not personify democracy; we take it as a benign abstraction. And no one becomes enthusiastic about an abstraction or fights for it or sacrifices for it. One does not love an abstraction or die for an abstraction or, what is infinitely harder, live and work and suffer for an abstraction. But it is not enough to hate or to fight Hitler, Mussolini, or Stalin; we must understand what democracy stands for, love that with a flaming passion, and fight for the privilege of sacrificing as may be required for making it a real force in our lives.

Democracy cannot wage a winning fight unless its people not only understand what it means and implies, but also have for it a passionate devotion. If democracy is to prevail, it must grip its people, the mature and especially the young, with the power of a religion. We must have understanding, but we must also have such a revival as three quarters of a century ago swept Lee's army from the Rapidan to the Rappahannock, which enabled them to suffer when necessary with calm happiness and to fight with a fervor that won battles against impossible odds.

In preparation for a military war we have drafted many of the ablest men and women of the nation. Many others have been left in their accustomed places of work, but the genius that they have manifested in industry and in other activities they are redirecting to the preparation of what may be needed for military combat. When our military forces are fully mobilized we shall have no fear of ultimate success in the defense of the physical assets of our country. But our physical wealth, vast as it is, cannot compare in importance with the spiritual assets that we have won through the persistent and sometimes painful exertions of our forbears. The Bill of Rights in the Constitution is more worth defending than all of our factories and all of our farms.

We can win a military war and lose our most precious possessions. We may escape an actual clash at arms, and at the same time fail to preserve the most cherished ideals which have made our civilization worth saving. Such losses are just as possible because of neglect to understand and to give devoted service to democracy as they are from the overwhelming force of foreign arms.

## THE NECESSITY OF PLANNING

Who is thinking ahead of these essential things? Who is planning for the preservation of the rights and even of the obligations that we gladly assume in order that men's minds may be free and their personalities respected as sacred? Our government has set up boards for planning and regulating all the processes of a possible military war. But democracy is



being left to shift for itself, on the assumption, perhaps, that it is generally understood, which is far from true, that its applications to the complexities of modern life are evident, and that everybody has sufficient devotion to its principles to contribute willingly the work and the sacrifices necessary to make a unified and truly victorious nation.

But democracy cannot be left to shift for itself. Unless it is continually clarified, unless there is developed in it an impelling faith, unless it is seen to be directive of action in all phases of modern life—social, religious, political, industrial and economic—it will be meaningless. A defeat at arms would be insignificant if we have already defeated democracy by neglect. It is incumbent on every citizen who appreciates the need to use his influence, not once only but continually, to have made and promoted a vigorous campaign of education for democracy, not only by the schools for children and youth but also by other government agencies for adults, especially those enlisted for the physical defense of the nation.

Inevitably, at some time and upon some terms, will come a military peace, when the forces of reason will replace the forces of arms. What do we want then? The objectives of peace are more important than the objectives of war. What sort of civilization do we desire after peace is consummated? What is it that we are really preparing to fight for? It is important that we know the answers to these questions now. It is important, if we are a real democracy, that our people be welded into a national unity by a real understanding and devotion to the peace aims. It is important, if we are a real democracy, that our soldiers and sailors and marines know what it is that they are called on to fight for—not merely the negative thing, the defeat of an enemy, but the positive thing, a civilization that is worth fighting for, sacrificing for, and, if need be, dying for. Without a unity based upon understanding and devotion the war will be fought in vain, whoever may sit at the head of the peace table.

As we have learned from the history of many wars and as we recollect from 1918, always consequent to the restoration of peace there are problems of the gravest import. Millions of men discharged from the armies will need to be rehabilitated into civil life. Other millions will be thrown out of work when plants that have been used for the manufacture of military supplies are closed down. We have hardly forgotten the sequelae of the First World War—the unemployed, helpless and hopeless, the "march on Washington," the boy and girl tramps, the frenzied speculation, the financial crash, the frozen credits, the closed banks, the long depression, the generation of youth with natural appetites and aspirations and without adequate provision for their assimilation into the civilization into which they were born, the short-sighted and impotent leadership. It is inconceivable that we have not profited from these and other similar experiences, and yet, with all our boasted pride in efficiency of planning and administering we are developing no program for the situation which everyone must recognize will inevitably confront the nation at the close of the military wars with which we are threatened.

It was in just such people that Hitler found the material for revolution in Germany. He promised them not merely bread and shelter and employment, but something infinitely more potent, a great national cause with which everyone could ally himself and thus gain an individuality and a self-respect. That cause was definite; it was made dramatic, and it stirred in the bosoms of millions who were humbled, obscure, poor, and hungry a hope of bettering their conditions and a pride emanating from a consciousness of national solidarity, to which each one could in his own definite way contribute. Hitler gave his people something to believe in, something that stirred them to hope, something that impelled them to devoted service.

#### THE YEARNING TO BELONG

Lawrence Dennis wrote six years ago: "What people cannot endure is not belonging. The tragedy of capitalism—unemployment—does not inhere in the phenomena of want and privation, but in the spiritual disintegration of large numbers of people from the group culture. Hitler can feed millions of his people acorns, and yet, if he integrates them in a spiritual union with their community, they will be happier than they were while receiving generous doles from a regime which gave them no such spiritual integration with the herd."<sup>1</sup> The experiments of the Western Electric Company with its personnel have given ample support to this emphasis on the effectiveness of integration. Our people need to identify themselves with the great cause of democracy. They can do that only through understanding and devotion.

People, especially youth, yearn for something to believe in, something to live for, something to work for, something to sacrifice for, something big and noble with which they may ally themselves. Dorothy Thompson recently reported an illuminating conversation with four young men, recent graduates from college, who were despondent and wandering because they felt that their education had for the most part tended to such critical aloofness from life that it had broken down their belief in any positive values and had weakened their faith in their country. "It had put them into intellectual and psychological confusion and into an inner despair out of which they had sought refuge in various ways at various times." One of them thought of casting his lot temporarily with the Young Communists, because, as he said, "they alone seemed to be perfectly clear in their own minds where they were going." Another had fallen into complete scepticism; a third into "the modern liberalism, resolution-signing, peace-parade sort of thing," and the fourth into "the only thing that seemed solid—my own egotism and self-interest."

Finally, in the conversation, one of them said, "When I went to college I was full of enthusiasm, particularly interested in history and philosophy. I wanted to find out what made wheels go round in this world. I wanted to prepare myself to *do* something—not just make money—not just to be 'a success,' but to achieve something, for myself, for my country, for my

<sup>1</sup>*The Social Frontier*, January, 1935.

times. Damn it," he cried in an explosive outburst of candor, "I wanted to *love* something—something bigger than I am. I wanted to be a part of something." Another one said, "I observed in reading history that the people who moved this world were animated by a passion for something. I could see that you couldn't write off faith as one of the prime molders of history, and that when there wasn't any faith, pure gangsterism and piracy broke loose. I could see that if I and my generation were going to mean anything in this world and not be just dots and specks pushed around by forces we couldn't control, we had to find out what our convictions were." Democracy will furnish that basis of faith and that force of integration that all desire.

What the detailed program for our civilization after the return of peace should be no one can say with certainty. But we can be certain of two things: one is that we shall need a program already prepared in its major outlines by the deliberations of the best minds of the nation; and the other is that this program must be based on the foundation principles of democracy. Without such a program that emanates from a wide-spread and devoted faith in such principles we shall grope in despondency, perhaps a majority of our people ready to follow a demagogue who promises what no one can deliver or a dictator who will set civilization back so far that our children's children will never see its recovery. We cannot afford to wait until the emergency is upon us, any more than we can afford to defer military armament until an enemy is debarking upon our shores or darkening our skies with hostile aircraft. It is plan now or perish later.

#### THE GOOD OLD DAYS ARE GONE

There are those who still think in their innocence that after peace we shall return to "the good old days." But however defined and however regretted, the good old days are probably gone forever. Like the rest of the world, our country is already in revolution, as anyone can see who looks back over the past decade or two. Radical changes are taking place in our economic, industrial, political, religious, and social life. War or no war, changes are inevitable here as elsewhere. Mercifully our revolution has thus far proceeded peacefully, without riot and bloodshed, which is explained partly by the tradition of our people and partly by the weakness of the opposition. Our friends across the water find comfort in chanting "There will always be an England," but never again will there be the England that was, and never again will our own civilization be what it was a short generation ago.

In aiding England we have been assuming that in the future we shall co-operate with the best of the old England that was. There is no assurance that it will survive even if Germany is utterly defeated. Ernest Bevin has already given warning that his government can expect continued support only if it is prepared to promise far-reaching social reforms when the war is over, if not before. And certainly, whoever is victor in the military struggle, there will be changes in both government and society of every country. We shall be in no position to consider co-operation with any nation

until we have determined exactly what our ideals are and in consequence what our interests demand.

#### THE INEVITABLE REVOLUTION

Revolution, violent or mild, being inevitable, the questions that we have to face are, What kind of civilization do we want, and Are we wise enough to plan so as to direct it? The people who plan the best revolution will win the war.

There is abundant reason to believe that our people are ready, receptive and eager for leadership in preparing for a new social order that is based on the democracy in which they still have a devoted but insufficiently defined faith. "The hungry sheep look up and are not fed." Without leadership they will not only "rot inwardly and foul contagion spread," but they will be ready victims of "that two-handed engine at the door" which "stands ready to smite once and smite no more." That engine is the opposition to democracy.

There can be no official definition of democracy, for it develops out of the growing faith of the people. The more they concern themselves with its meanings, the more likelihood that there will emerge an agreement which will be the basis of the program for the civilization that we wish for the future.

#### THE AMERICAN WAY OF LIFE

Though what we call the American way of life is still evolving, still struggling toward ideals that steadily move upward with man's enlightened progress, it is in its essence very simple. So far as the popular mind can be interpreted, democracy seems to base on three faiths.

The first and essential faith is that the maximum happiness of every individual is the purpose of all human association. From beginnings in infant selfishness, one grows through experiences with his family and later with larger groups to appreciation of the fact that the extent and substantiality of his own happiness is determined by that of the entire social group with whom he is associated.

The second essential faith is that every human personality is worthy of respect. Only as it is respected, by itself as well as by others, can it grow and make its maximum contribution to the welfare and happiness of others. Because of this faith society, through organized government, is providing food, clothing, and decent shelter for the unfortunate and the needy, not as charity but as an expedient to enable these people to retain or regain their own self-respect and thus to contribute their best to the making of happiness for all. Because of this faith we seek to free all men from the chains of ignorance, of superstition, of fear, and of abasement that each one may develop his unique powers and stand shoulder to shoulder in the forces of co-operative welfare.

The third essential faith is that the wisest decisions concerning broad social policies result from the pooling of opinions from the wisdom of all who are concerned. To deny this faith is to assume that those with superior wisdom can surely be found and will be selected, that they can be trusted

to exercise their wisdom consistently for the general good, that the wisest in one matter are also the wisest in all matters, and that being intrusted with power for one occasion they will relinquish it when it is no longer justified. Since such assumptions have never failed in the history of mankind to be false, there is only one conclusion to which intelligent and public-spirited men can come—and that is to have faith in the superior wisdom of the general social mind. Moreover, it is only by exercising the right to share in making decisions that citizens grow in the power to do so unselfishly and wisely.

Beginning with some such interpretation of democracy, we need to stir the entire nation, adults as well as youth, to such a consideration of fundamental social ideals that conviction and devotion will result. Only after there is clarification of mind by all who will take the trouble really to think about the matter shall we have laid a foundation upon which to erect the structure of the new revolution. Without this foundation in the popular mind we shall have uncertainty, disunion, groping, and inevitable disaster.

#### EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

The schools have already increased their emphasis on the teaching of democracy, and undoubtedly they not only are its best exemplification but also are the most effective agency that society has for perpetuating its ideals and for promoting its plans for the future. But the schools are handicapped by the fact that teachers by and large have done little more than the general public in the clarification of their own conception of democracy. They are handicapped also by the fact that when they are most effective in teaching the American way of life, especially in specific applications, they are estopped by citizens whose definite selfish interests overwhelm their concern for the general good. These obstacles will continue until the people are led to clarify their understanding of the meaning of democracy and to come to general agreement on it.

Teaching democracy in the schools is essential, but it is not enough. Leadership must stimulate the concern and the thinking of adults as well. For the most part we must rely on voluntary leaders who will use the press, the radio, forums, and organizations of various kinds. Inevitably in discussions there will be wide and occasionally violent disagreements; but gradually there will emerge the foundational faiths, perhaps those already enumerated, on which the structure of the new civilization may be soundly built.

At the present time society has an inviting and challenging opportunity for stimulating a consideration of the meanings of democracy leading to a clarification of understanding and to a deepening of devotion to them. That opportunity is afforded by the enrollment of hundreds of thousands of young men in the army, the navy, and the marines, and of the youth in the Civilian Conservation Corps camps and under the National Youth Administration. A peculiar opportunity, which would not conflict with the requirements of the army and the navy, is afforded in men between the

time when they are called by the draft and when they are inducted into service. Any local community, without waiting for governmental leadership, aid, or direction, could perform a service of patriotism by offering suitable instruction or by opening forums for discussion. Can anyone doubt that it is more important in the long run to educate the youth and men in the meanings of democracy and to develop in them a devoted faith to it than it is to train them in the military and vocational curricula that have been prepared?

When the dislocation consequent on demobilization comes, democracy will need just these young men to be clear in their heads and devoted in their hearts. Without a great nucleus of a democratic society such as they may be led to become, the social, industrial, and economic reconstruction may be a revolution indeed in the violent sense of the word.

#### PLANNING FOR PEACE

Preparation for peace should be begun now by our government using as able men and women as are already directing our preparation for military war. It should concern itself with private and public enterprise, with the relations of capital and labor, with planned production, with exports and imports, with the financial structure of the nation, for individuals as well as for the government, with higher standards of living, with health, with a wise use of leisure time, with education—with everything, in fact, that makes for the prosperity and happiness of our people. But planning such as this is dependent on decision as to the kind of civilization we want, and that kind of civilization will be determined by our concept of democracy and on our faith in it.

There is an old saying "In time of peace prepare for war." We should be far wiser if we accept and act now on the reverse, "In time of war prepare for peace."

#### BUSINESS MEETING

President Granger presided at the business meeting, which followed the above program.

Committee reports were given.

Implementation Commission by Dr. Will French.

Youth Committee by Dr. Paul B. Jacobson.

Students Activities' Committee by Dr. Edgar G. Johnston.

Records Committee by Mr. T. B. Beatty.

Drama Committee by Mr. George H. Gilbert.

Executive Committee by Mr. Paul E. Elicker.

Planning Committee by Dr. Francis L. Bacon.

Following is the report as submitted by the planning committee:

The *Committee* continues under the general design of giving consideration to all phases of the Association's work and relationships. Many questions are submitted to the *Planning Committee* by the Executive Committee and by the Executive Secretary, in order that further study may be made and that specific recommendations or findings may be set up. A few suggestions come from the field. More would be welcome.



The fall meeting of the *Committee* was held in Chicago and a dossier of several pages, covering many different items, was prepared for the Executive Committee. It is in such manner that the *Committee* acts as a continuously working sub-committee to the Executive Committee, thereby increasing the efficiency of the deliberative and executive phases of the Association's work. The five-year terms of the *Committee* aid much in giving the committee members the needed background of experience; while the replacement of but one member each year insures continuity of understanding and action (see Committee Report of March, 1937, BULLETIN No. 65, for the original purpose and design of the *Committee*).

It is pleasant to report that the Discussion Group Project and the activities of the Implementation Commission, both originally outlined by the Planning Committee, moved forward this past year with continued significance and larger development. More than 25,000 copies of the discussion folder for this year have been requested, and requests calling for, at least, 5,000 more copies are reasonably certain. The original gift which made possible the Discussion Group Project was completely expended in 1940. In fact, Mr. Walter E. Myer, the director, donated his services that the plans for the year might be completed.

Therefore, on July 1, 1940, it became necessary for Mr. Elicker, the new Executive Secretary, to take on the active responsibility of the Project although greatly obligated by the demands of his new position and the extra burden, too, of the new arrangements at Washington. Despite these evident handicaps, the attention given to the Project has brought highly satisfactory results.

The special grant for the work of the Implementation Commission has enabled their activities to progress excellently this year. For next year a serious problem of adequate financing this most important work faces the Association.

Under these circumstances, it again becomes important to point out (see Committee Report of February, 1940, BULLETIN No. 88, for more details) that the services which the Association now gives to its members are greatly in excess of the money returned by the uncommonly low membership fee. Much of the recent accomplishment of the Association has been due to the generous gifts from educational foundations.

The membership fee has been the same since the founding of the Association. For many years the only direct service was the report of the Annual Convention. Thus it would now appear that fees should be more nearly commensurate with the cost of the many services given. For example, the recent BULLETINS have won a high regard in the educational world, but the membership fees do not pay for the yearly eight issues. Comparison of services and fees with other national organizations should prove enlightening on this matter.

The plans for the re-organization of the executive and operational work of the Association, necessarily incident to the change of the headquarters to Washington, D. C., have progressed with much satisfaction to the members



of both the Planning and Executive committees. Obviously, additional time will be required to perfect the new organization, but there is every promise that the Association's development of the past few years will be much more adequately operated under the new arrangement.

The *Committee* is gratified to report that the co-ordinating activities with the state associations, growing especially out of the Discussion Group Project, have proved most encouraging, and that increasingly the state associations are becoming vitally interested in the development of the national program. This co-ordinated interest would seem to offer the most significant promise in the whole field of secondary education.

The necessary brevity of this report prevents mentioning many other phases of the *Committee's* considerations and recommendations, but other results may be seen in the current reports of a number of special committees.

Respectfully submitted,

E. D. Grizzel, W. C. Reavis, Arthur Gould, R. L. Lindquist,  
and F. L. Bacon, *Chairman*.

At this time a beautiful silver pitcher was presented to President Granger as a token of appreciation for his services to the Association by George Galphin for the Philadelphia Suburban Principals' Association.

Roy L. Butterfield gave the report of the Board of Nominators. A motion was made to accept the report and elect the slate of officers as presented and as listed on the inside cover page of this BULLETIN.

The gavel was turned over to the new president, John E. Wellwood, and the meeting adjourned.

### ***To Members of Our Association***

This publication is a full report of the proceedings of the meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals held in Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 22 to 27, 1941. Special preparations were made to have the BULLETIN published during the convention as a prompt service to members. Additional copies are available at \$1.00 or a special rate of fifty cents to members.

PAUL E. ELICKER  
*Executive Secretary*

## *Third General Session*

### **Junior High-School Section**

Wednesday, February 26, 2:15 p. m., Music Room, Hotel Chalfonte

Topic: HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS EVALUATE THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

J. Dan Hull, Principal, Senior High School, Springfield, Missouri, presided at the meeting.

A 1250 foot motion picture all in technicolor of activities in the Harding Junior High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, was shown to the audience and to a group of twenty-seven pupils from the high schools of Atlantic City, New Jersey. Mr. George N. Sturm, principal of the Harding Junior High School gave interpretations as the picture was shown, the picture depicted the aims, the program of studies, the school plant and the activities of the school. This school is one of seven junior high schools in Oklahoma City and has an enrollment of eleven hundred pupils in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

Following the showing of the motion picture and the interpretations, a group of twenty-seven pupils, representing a cross section of the ninth grade of the Atlantic City high schools, gave an evaluation of this motion picture. The group was composed of Frances Robbins, Gloria Clyman, Stan Shapiro, Robert Bogan, Morton Rosenblatt, Herbert Schlosser, Robert Heiter, Maurice Crane, Faith Beldegreen, Lucille Bloom, Alvina Bell, Larry Barnett, Elaine Boyer, Herbert Stern, James Damico, Nathan Kirschbaum, Philip A. Baratta, Jr., Stanford Blum, Joseph Kingan, Jacqueline Blumberg, Wallace Campbell, Charles Fischer, Donald Tachudy, Gloria Freedman, Lily Roberts, Morton Peterson, Ann Gualtieri.

These pupils pointed out that this motion picture gave evidence of the fact that pupils in the Harding Junior High School were actually living in a democratic atmosphere. They were given a voice in determining the daily procedures of the school both in their classroom and in their other daily activities. They pointed out that freedom to express one's points of view was not granted to those living in many European countries. This motion picture showed that pupils were allowed to have and execute ideas.

Through the democratic operation of the school, pupils learn the ways of democracy and thus are more likely to practice them in after-school life than if they gained no such knowledge while in school. The group felt that when pupils in school chose their own officers and representatives on a class—or home-room basis and that when they worked co-operatively as a group, they learned democracy. At the same time they were also learning to work individually.

One pupil expressed the idea that the picture showed that the program permitted the pupil a wide range of choices and a wide range of try-out experiences. Through the art classes, the school plays, the student council, the club activities, the woodworking shop, and the many other activities, an opportunity was given each pupil to learn something of the various

occupations and their training necessities, thus making it possible for them to make wiser choices in the building of their later school program.

The pupils were of the opinion that the Harding Junior High School trained in democracy through its cafeteria. They pointed out that "everything was so orderly." One pupil remarked: "I don't think that this was for the picture alone, but that it is really true." They believed that the pupils in a school should be permitted to have fun during the free time in school and that planned games with freedom tended to make pupils work better during class periods.

In the showing of the motion picture, the evaluating group expressed the belief that it showed that the barriers between pupils and teachers were being broken down,—that the school was really democratic. Clubs as depicted gave evidence that pupils were allowed to give expression to their own ideas. One pupil remarked, "The pupils were permitted to do things that grownups would be allowed to do." As an example of this "give and take" attitude between teachers and pupils, one pupil stated, "We had a congress last year which was headed by the student council, I think that this is the best way to show democracy. It is a government by the pupils. Last year a lot of dumb things were brought up in that council, but there was a faculty adviser who put a stop to them." [Laughter.]

Mr. L. N. Morrisett: Exactly what would have happened if you did not have that teacher?

Pupil: I shall give you an example. Last year we asked for a coca cola in the cafeteria. The supervisor said coca cola was not very good for us and that we should have milk and hot drinks. If we hadn't had the supervisor we would have had the coca cola.

Mr. Morrisett: What did you observe in the motion picture that showed how boys and girls are practicing democracy?

Pupil: When they gave the assembly program, the student-council president was the announcer instead of the principal. This practice will be valuable in later life. Also, a boy operated one of the movies. When the PTA had a meeting, the students in advanced cooking classes made the lunches and served them.

Pupil: Pupils took charge of Bible reading and flag salute.

The discussion and evaluation then centered on the junior high school organization.

Pupil: Here in Atlantic City, we have six years of grammar school, two of junior high school, and four of high school. I notice that in Harding they have three years in the junior high school and three in high school, and I wonder which this group thinks is better for the pupil.

Pupil: I think that is a matter of opinion. If you made a survey you could tell.

Pupil: I think that in the ninth grade you should still be grouped with the seventh and eighth grades. Your interests are more with them. You are not old enough to be an adult and not young enough to be a child.

Pupil: It is better, I think, to have the seventh, eighth, and ninth

grades together, because in the seventh you have all the things like cooking and sewing, and in the eighth and ninth you study the ones you like.

Pupil: I disagree with all the people who have spoken. I was awfully glad to get out of junior high school. I wanted to call the Atlantic City high school football team my team. All of these pupils had been my ideals. I wanted to feel bigger. I think every adolescent boy and girl does. They want to feel bigger quicker. [Laughter.]

Mr. Morrisett: I want to know what you like best about Harding Junior High School.

The following pupil comments were made by as many pupils:

1. There were lots of nice things about it. One was the recreation period right after lunch.
2. I noticed that for eleven cents a person can get a substantial lunch. In our system we have to pay more than that. This is the first time I have seen that a person could get for eleven cents everything needed for the daily diet.
3. I liked best the adequate equipment. Everything seemed good and new and well kept.
4. I think the recreation period had a lot of outdoor sports. We are in school so much of the time that it is very good for growing boys and girls to be in the air.
5. What I liked was the boys' cooking classes, because after all the best cooks are men. I was glad to see it.
6. The thing I liked was that the pupils are allowed to perform their own experiments.
7. During the noon recreation period games were provided for pupils who aren't so athletically inclined.
8. I liked best the swimming pool because most of the pupils know how to swim.
9. I like that student council very much because I think it was taken from all the rooms.

Mr. Morrisett: Well, you are a real set of teachers, whether or not you are very good as pupils.

At this point the audience was given the opportunity to question the pupils.

Will Principal Sturm explain about the girls' gym suits?

Mr. Sturm: They are not made in the sewing room. They are the property of each individual girl. All schools use the same pattern, but the girls may select the color they want. The boys' suits are all gray. Swimming suits are owned by the school. They are rented for twenty-five cents a semester, washed, sterilized, and dried. The pupils get a fresh one each time in the pool.

Question: Although you have been in the senior high school a short time, which do you think more democratic?

Pupil: The senior high school is more democratic. Last year we had

to walk in lines. Now we walk about freely and are treated as adults. It is much more democratic. We feel more at home.

Question: "Democracy" has been used quite freely. Can you give me the meaning of the word?

Pupil: Democracy means "by the people."

Question: Is there anything not now in the curriculum which you would like to put in?

Pupil: Physical education. Why, in the seventh grade, is physical education required and in the eighth and ninth elected?

Mr. Sturm: In the seventh and the eighth grade it is required. In the ninth grade it is placed upon an elective basis. The pupils may take five subjects,—three constant. That leaves two subjects for them to elect.

Mr. Morrisett: How many agree with this girl and would ask Mr. Sturm to consider a recommendation to have it required for all children in all grades?

(A majority agreed.)

Mr. Morrisett: What would you put in the curriculum?

Pupil: A workshop. People who haven't enough money or scholastic ability could become craftsmen.

A summary was then presented on

## An Evaluation of the Educational Program of the Harding Junior High School, Oklahoma City

(after seeing a Motion Picture of the School in Technicolor)

LLOYD N. MORRISETT

*Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Yonkers, New York*

Friends of the junior high school, it has been a pleasure and a real privilege for us to see this motion picture in technicolor of the Harding Junior High School of Oklahoma City. This sound film, together with the magic of motion pictures in technicolor, will, I am sure, prove to be an inspiration to those who are in attendance here this afternoon. I believe that you have demonstrated your approval of the picture and would like to have me express our compliments and our congratulations to Principal George Sturm. Yes, it is a grand picture. It tells a great story.

This interesting picture has several important uses for a principal and his staff. These purposes as I see them are:

(a) that of orientation of pupils transferring from the sixth grade of elementary schools to this junior high school, and also the orientation of those pupils who transfer to Harding from other seventh, eighth, and ninth grade schools;

(b) that of interpreting the school program to patrons and lay groups (this interpretative purpose of the film is, I am sure, of great value to parents who will become patrons of the school for the first time; it indeed gives an over-view of the school program, the work of the school and of the school life itself);

(c) that of an educational project or educative experience for groups of pupils within the school.

Any one of these purposes would abundantly justify the making and the use of this film called "Harding Junior High School from A to Z." I may add that this sound film represents a very definite asset to the school; that it reflects an alert, aggressive, professional administration and teaching staff; that as educational publicity or as an interpretative medium it is a source of strength and should be an effective instrument in the community.

You have noted by the program that my purpose is to evaluate the educational program of the school. Any evaluation must be set up in terms of the aspects of the school presented; the objectives of the school; the methods employed for obtaining the objectives; and lastly, in terms of observed results.

The Harding Junior High School, which is one of the several junior high schools of the Oklahoma City system apparently has as its chief objective to give a diversified, enriched, socialized, democratic experience and life to the young adolescent group of the community. At least I got this impression from the film and the spoken word which accompanied it. The educational program of the school in its attempt to bridge the gap between childhood and the early adolescent seemingly faces rather boldly the challenge of this fast growing, energetic group of pupils. As you noticed, these boys and girls come into Harding as seventh graders with the characteristic appearance and demeanor of boys and girls found in grades five and six. They are merely children but within a year or two they pass through grades seven and eight, and as ninth graders they have the characteristics and the appearance of young men and young women.

What a marvelous transformation takes place in youth between the time of entering the seventh grade and being promoted from junior high school to the tenth grade in senior high school. This growth and development is physical, psychological, emotional, and intellectual. Time and youth march on. Each phase of this growth and development represents a distinct and knotty problem to the junior high-school teaching staff. Apparently the administration and the teachers of the Harding Junior High School recognize these problems. I am inclined to believe they have identified many of them and are intelligently seeking more correct solutions to them through the educational program.

#### THE EXPANDING INTEREST OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

The curriculum comprising the courses of study of this junior high school, from what I gather, has been built upon the basis that these pre- or young adolescents are rapidly becoming interested in many phases and many aspects of life. The curriculum as shown by the picture indicates that the courses of study minister freely and liberally toward the expanding interests of the pupil population. Boys and girls of the junior high school age are curious, they are energetic, they want to know the "whys," the "hows," and the "whats," and to be able to do things as they see things being done in the adult world. They are interested in hobbies and in

vocations, but they are also interested in personal relationships, and are beginning to evidence and gain awareness of the fact that outside of the school there is a world of business, and also a professional world. The course of study of the Harding Junior High School recognizes all of these facts, and has been designed in turn to give due recognition to them. The exploratory scope of the program of studies of the curriculum is interesting, and certainly we are led to believe by this beautiful picture that the boys and girls of Harding Junior High School are experiencing life, engaging in educative activities and doing things in many different fields; in fact, in so many different fields that their curiosity and yen for exploration are likely to be stimulated and partially satisfied.

The educational program of this school is evidently built around a core concept which emphasizes English, social studies, science and mathematics, with particular emphasis upon English and social studies. This aspect, of the program of studies I think you will agree, is sound and tenable. It should go far toward carrying out the objectives of the school.

Particularly interesting were the provisions for health activities and health education which this junior high school is providing for its pupils. There is no time in the life of a human being when the inculcation of good health habits and sane thinking on personal-health and community-health problems are more important or timely than during the three years the boys and girls spend in grades seven, eight, and nine. Again, the physical transformation in this period is an inspiration to teachers and parents, but frequently it is a trying time for pupils, teachers, and parents. Any adequate program of education for junior high-school pupils must give special attention to health education, health habits, ideals of health, and community-health problems. In this health program I certainly would find a sufficiently large place for the development of good mental health and social hygiene.

The curriculum of the Harding Junior High School shows that physical education and physical activities play an important part in the lives of the pupils in grades seven, eight, and nine. I take it that physical education as such is required of all boys and girls in grades seven and eight, but becomes an elective subject in grade nine. If I may be permitted to say so, in my opinion this is one of the real weaknesses of the program of studies. Certainly and surely, boys and girls in grade nine need physical training, health education, and health concepts, particularly in the fields of mental health and social hygiene, equally as much, if not more so, as do the pupils in grades seven and eight. Personally I can see no good reason why physical education should not be a constant in the educational program of all junior high-school pupils on all grade levels. The picture indicates, moreover, that in the Harding Junior High School health activities, health education, and health concepts are not delegated solely to the department of physical education. There is ample evidence for believing that health training and health teaching appear in grades seven, eight, and nine in social studies; in grade eight in general science; and again for all



boys and girls in grade seven through courses in homemaking, industrial arts, music, and oral expression. This is as it should be.

The educational program of the school apparently does a splendid job of general education for all boys and girls in grade seven where they have a common curriculum. This program which embraces English, social studies, mathematics, homemaking, industrial arts, physical education, music and oral expression, must certainly meet the needs of the pupils and result in noticeable and desirable growth in such ways as increased interest, acquired skills, and activity leading to further activities. Too much cannot be said concerning the very important and may I say significant subjects of homemaking, industrial arts, music and oral expression. Apparently these do not re-appear as required subjects or constants for all boys and girls in grades eight and nine. The picture indicates that these subjects with their rich educative experiences; these subjects which certainly contribute as much and perhaps more than any others to equip boys and girls to live happily and successfully in a democratic society; these subjects, which are going to carry over in life and add to or subtract immeasurably from the effectiveness and power of these boys and girls later as adults, husbands, wives, and citizens, become electives in grades eight and nine. In this respect, we may question whether or not the program of studies in grades eight and nine is as much in keeping with the junior high school ideal and the philosophy of the Harding Junior High School as is the program of studies in grade seven. If free public education is the first line of defense for American democracy; if teachers are the shock troops of the American way of life; if school life is effectively to prepare for effective citizenship in an expanding democracy, then homemaking, industrial arts, music, art, and oral expression should receive major emphasis and be constants in the educational program of all grades in the junior high school for all pupils.

#### THE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

Guidance and counseling are among the most necessary services which any junior high school can provide for its pupil population. Guidance is the vehicle or again guidance is the program by which and through which pupils become more fully aware of themselves. Through guidance pupils learn of their interest, their abilities, their capacities, their achievements and the causes of their failures and disappointments. They become aware of their needs. They are also directed into avenues of promise for their own happiness and success, or it may well be they are frequently steered away from blind alleys. True, the guidance program of any given school functions through the administration, through the teacher, through the curriculum and through the program of activities. This must be if the modern school is to fit what it teaches to the child rather than to attempt the impossible task of fitting the child to the curriculum. May Providence forbid that we be foolish enough to attempt the latter. Counselors and guidance directors co-ordinate the entire program of guidance in the Harding Junior High School. Each pupil is given individual attention

because the school, according to this picture, conceives each pupil to be an individual personality, an entity and a potential and promising citizen of the state. The guidance program, we are led to conclude, not only allows but encourages extensive pupil participation in many school activities for the sole purpose of having these boys and girls experience the fine art of living. They are given supervision in the development of habits of proper conduct, and the development of wholesome personalities. Truly the boys and girls are both happy and fortunate. The net result of such a guidance program as is evidently being developed at the Harding Junior High School is the constant development of pupil leadership on a large scale, and also the development of intelligent followers with the recognition that all cannot be leaders; neither can a certain few pupils lead all the time. These are important concepts. They strengthen or weaken the quality of both individual and group citizenship.

Other results observed from this beautiful film were the growth and development through grades seven, eight, and nine of boys and girls as social individuals with demonstrated ability to get along with their fellows and associates. They also learn through the guidance program to make intelligent choices, to interpret questions for themselves, to make adjustments to individual and group problems, and also to think critically and act intelligently. These indeed are desirable ends of education. These ends are being sought through a splendid, well-organized program of curricular and extra-curricular activities.

This motion picture in technicolor of the Harding Junior High School is indeed a contribution to junior high-school literature. Now, we must understand clearly and know that this is not the only school that has attempted to interpret its school program through the motion picture. Neither is it the first nor the only school to use the motion picture as a means of orientation, guidance and interpretation, but this is a good example, yes a splendid example of what many of the better and more progressive junior high schools are doing. It is an illustration of the kind of thing that more junior high schools should do. I firmly believe that if this idea enunciated so well today by Principal George Sturm and the motion picture of his school is multiplied time and again in the junior high schools of the nation; if it is intelligently and extensively used in the several communities of the nation where junior high-school education is in progress; we may confidently expect a re-awakening of democratic faith in public education. More important than this, perhaps we may have back of the junior high-school program a citizenry firmly convinced of the worth and value of junior high-school education; men and women determined that their children will have their rightful experience of a junior high-school education with the full belief and knowledge that because of this these boys and girls will be equipped and qualified to live happy, joyous lives, and become happy, participating, contributing citizens in our American democratic society.

Mr. Sturm, our compliments to you and your associates at Harding. To the boys and girls at Harding, America needs all of the abilities, all of the talents and the loyalty of all its citizens.

### Senior High-School Section

Wednesday, February 26, 2:15 p. m., Vernon Room, Hotel Haddon Hall

#### Topic: WORK EXPERIENCE—A PHASE OF EDUCATION

The Senior High-School section opened at 2:15 P. M. in the Vernon Room, Haddon Hall, with Paul B. Jacobson as Chairman, Youth Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Principal, University of Chicago High School, Chicago, Illinois. His introductory remarks follow:

Because of far-reaching changes in society, it has become very difficult, if not impossible, for young people except on farms to secure work experience in the home while attending school or to secure places in industry when they graduate from, or drop out of, the secondary school. Each year somewhat over 500,000 young people out of a total of 1,750,000 who enter the labor market cannot find jobs. Often their only qualification is willingness to try. They have had no work experience, frequently they have no specific skills.

Each year more boys living on farms reach the age of eighteen than there are farmers who die or retire. As a result young men flock to our cities without experience or training for the kinds of tasks which they may hope to secure. The adjustments which they make are severe to say the least.

By and large we have not enabled youth to look at the employment situation realistically. We teach how much a doctor earns, and what training is needed to become an engineer. What we teach is true; but it is only half the picture. Recent studies indicate that one boy secured his first employment in a profession; but thirty-one wished to do so. The studies also indicate that twenty-six times as many girls secured their first full-time position in domestic service as wished to do so. There is nothing degrading about any kind of honest and socially desirable work. When we enroll all youth in the secondary school, of course we have the doctor, the grave digger, the skilled mechanic, and the domestic servant, and we must equip them realistically.

Work experience is the right and privilege of every youth as part of the experience of growing up. Sometimes it is just work experience—earning a dollar by hard labor; sometimes it may have vocational significance. Society has indicated that it will provide such experience for many, perhaps for all youth. The purpose of this program is to indicate the value and possibilities of work experience in a program of education.

## Value of Work in Education in the Secondary Schools

GEORGE C. MANN

*Director, Division of Student Work, National Youth Administration  
Washington, D. C.*

The idea of work as a part of education is in no wise new. As a matter of fact, it is as old as history itself. In the earliest literature we can find, work is not only a part of education but a principal means of education. We read in the Talmud, the compilation of old Jewish law, some such statement as this: "As the law is important, so is the knowledge of work." If we realize how important the law was to those people in those days, we have a conception of what the emphasis on the knowledge of work was. In a later period, when we come to the time when trades were an occupation to learn through some system of apprenticeship, we found that parents not only bound out their sons to learn a trade but bound them out as a means of insuring their education. There were times even when they bound them out to learn a trade when there was no intent that they should follow this trade but so they might have a means of receiving a general education. The values were somewhat intangible but included subsistence, the learning of the "mysteries" of the trade, and a general education. The employer bound himself to give training in religion, government, law, and the fundamentals of learning. It was a period when work and education went hand in hand. This was in a time when production was carried on on an individual basis.

### WORK AND EDUCATION IN EARLIER DAYS

As we passed gradually into the period when we had mass production and division of labor, we reached a time when the education was minimized and work emphasized. While this was in effect revolution, it developed over a period of many years; in fact, a division of labor began among the Greeks in 400 B. C. but did not reach its culmination until the highly industrialized period during the latter part of the nineteenth century. In this culmination we reached a time when, as far as labor was concerned, it was all work and no education. As the apprenticeship system broke down, a plan for the education of the great mass of people broke down. Children were herded together in factories for long hours of work, no provision was made for education, health, or recreation. As a matter of fact, in the lifetime of your grandfather the first law was passed requiring that some time be given to the education of very young people. This law, passed in 1833, required that children under twelve should not work more than nine hours a day and that three hours a day must be given to teaching reading and writing.

Many schemes were used by industrialists to avoid giving this three hours out of twelve for education of children nine, ten, and eleven years of age by moving the factories away from the districts where the laws applied. It took nearly a whole century to get laws, even in this country, which would insure every child a right to an education. Our continuation school laws, passed in states from 1917 to 1923, required at least four hours of

training for children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, and, in some cases, up to eighteen. There developed, during the period from 1900 to 1920, a group of people who saw an advantage in combining work and education in a way to develop the total adjustment of the child. The view was not generally held, however, for the greater number of parents and educators believed that the children should be given an opportunity to devote their full time to education and relaxation, and this to the type of education which would give them the abilities and qualifications "to avoid hard work which their parents had had to endure." This third period, therefore, was a period of all education and no work.

This attitude was, of course, coupled with the lack of work opportunities. This latter period brought about results with which you are all familiar. It soon became obvious that young people did not make the necessary adjustments in the transition from childhood to adult life, did not develop initiative and responsibility. The consciousness of this lack caused many people, and especially many educators, to do some pioneer thinking on schemes to develop the responsibility of young people. This whole development has led us all to the realization of the necessity for work as a part of the total educational program. It is necessary, in order to make the proper induction into adult life, to develop an understanding of the adult world, to build a sense of responsibility. No one can claim the credit for this idea—we all know it; no one can take the blame for the condition that exists—it is a result of changing attitudes and changing material conditions.

In the early days, and even in our own times, especially in the agricultural homes, there was work to be done by each member of the family. The family functioned as a unit with each contributing his share to the family welfare. The son learned from his father how to till the soil and build the buildings, and the daughter learned from her mother how to cook, sew, and rear the children.

I will stop here to say that much less has been done to develop opportunities to learn about work for girls than has been developed for boys. It has been said by leaders that, up to very recent times, the true homemaking courses were practically non-existent. Sewing in the school usually consisted of making stitches on small pieces of cloth and writing themes about them. There was not developed the type of training which would develop homemakers, and some skeptic has said that there is no opportunity to teach the work at home because, under our system of compulsory education, the child is not at home and, even if the child were at home, the mother would probably not be at home. The truth of the whole situation is that work opportunities—real work opportunities—do not exist at home under our present system of living. As a matter of fact, they not only did not know how to work, they did not even know vicariously what work is. In a recent survey in a sixth grade in a school in Oakland it was found that twenty-six out of thirty-seven boys and girls did not know the occupation in which their father was engaged. No longer are children able to learn the

father's trade by actually working with him and contributing to the family income. Father rushes off to work with machines and tools that the son never sees. Mother takes the car to get the day's supply of cans and a dress or two, which leaves the daughter without the opportunity to get the work experience which she needs to develop her into a mature adult.

This vast social change has deprived young people of one of their birthrights, the right to an opportunity to work and gain those desirable qualities of adulthood which come from working.

#### WORK EXPERIENCE NECESSARY FOR YOUTH'S DEVELOPMENT

As we reach maturity as a nation, we can see the results of our previous experiences from this review of the relation of work and education; we see the importance of both and their close relationship. We are entering on a new period in which work and education will be the component parts of a total program for the personal development of youth. We can see that everyone must work and contribute his share to the national income and receive his just share for his labor. We can see that work is the lot of man and to stigmatize it and shun it brings ruin to the individual and the nation. We can see that all work and no leisure, as was the condition during the lowest period of our industrial set up, and that all education and no work, in its true sense, as was the case in more recent times, are both destructive. We must have philosophy with our daily living and reality with our education. More education in the early days would have prevented the vast destruction of our national resources, but education without an established contact with reality means failure to utilize the vast human resources that we have. We have to realize the importance of work and work experience as a vital phase of education. We must realize that both are important to the individual and to our democracy which is composed of individuals.

You will agree entirely with what I have said, that work experiences are important to youth's development. The question then arises as to who is to provide these work experiences for youth. All people I know who are concerned with this problem say that schools, and especially secondary schools, should provide these work experiences. You are in a more strategic position than any other agency to do so. There are six and one-half million students in our secondary schools today under your supervision. No other institution in the United States has so close a contact with these young people as you do. You are not only in the more strategic position, but you command the greatest prestige in the community. Parents look to you to provide their sons and daughters with the experiences which will make them adjust as adults. It is your job, and it is a job that deserves all your efforts and imagination.

The National Youth Administration at this time is an important aid in this program because it can allot money with which to start the work programs, and schoolmen all over the country have been eager to secure this financial assistance. It has taken a long time for us, as schoolmen, to get the program under efficient and effective operation because it was new



and because, at the beginning, we looked on the National Youth Administration as a relief program instead of a work program. I have been told a number of times, in recent conferences held in various sections of the country, that there was a common understanding that, if jobs could be found for needy students, wages would be paid for the work, but, if jobs could not be found, the assistance would be given anyway. That is no longer the understanding in either the National Youth Administration or the schools. Now we are seeing the great potentialities of this work program in education, and schools are everywhere beginning to re-evaluate and re-examine their work program in order to establish programs which will be more beneficial to the students, to the school, and to the community.

The National Youth Administration in setting up this program, started with the establishment of a national school-work council. This council is composed of representative educators throughout the country, educators representing this Secondary-School Principals Association, with the addition of members representing the Association of School Administrators. This was followed up with the establishment of fifty school-work councils whose job it is to develop in each state a program which will use the available funds, not only to insure needy students an opportunity to properly continue their education, but to correlate the whole work program as a regular part of the educational program of secondary schools. The actual operators of the program are the principals of schools. The Youth Administration has not told the schools what to do; as a matter of fact, I think you will all agree that there is no agency which has allowed the freedom of operation, which has encouraged as great flexibility in the use of funds as has the National Youth Administration. In the National office, those who have the direction of the program have been taken from the public schools. In most cases, these men who have been chosen plan to return again to public-school administration. It seems entirely superfluous to say that the National Youth Administration has confidence in schoolmen to see the significance of the program and to carry it out in the best way. That is why schoolmen, and only schoolmen, make up the councils of which I have spoken.

The National Youth Administration can reach only a small number of students. You can reach them all. It has always been true that, as schools realized community needs and met these needs, they have come to be responsible for doing the whole job. Commercial courses were first taught by private tutors and business houses, agricultural lessons were learned at home, vocational education began in the home and spread to apprenticeship shops, science and the arts were once fields for private organizations. If you examine the whole school curriculum as it is today, you find it includes many fields which were started outside of the school.

#### YOUTH MUST BE GIVEN WORK THAT IS EDUCATIVE

Now, I have said a good deal about work and work experiences to be obtained in secondary schools, so just what do I mean when I speak of work? I mean work on jobs which are real jobs: jobs which produce both tan-



gible and intangible values for the individual and the community; jobs which the students can see need to be done; jobs which will develop, in time, a sense of usefulness, a sense of pride and responsibility, a sense of belonging to the community and the nation; jobs which are worth while and, therefore, worth paying for.

One group of leading schoolmen have developed a set of principles, to be kept in mind in this work program:

1. Highly repetitive activities and those fraught with any degree of futility should not be considered desirable assignments for NYA youth. While desirable work may be found in assisting the custodian, the engineer, or the janitor, because that is desirable occupation for some youth, he should not be set, during his school life, to cleaning mops day after day and semester after semester.
2. Assignments which are competitive in nature with those already carried on by regular employees, should not be considered desirable assignments for NYA youth. There is still more work to do than can be done with available funds for regular employees.
3. Assignments which are innately distasteful for young people are not to be considered desirable assignments. We do not want to educate so that the wrong attitude will be developed toward work. This does not mean that the boy or girl must not work at an occupation unless he is intensely interested in that job. There is some educational value in having to meet a responsibility whether that responsibility is pleasant or not.
4. Assignments must involve the reward of accomplishment as well as the reward of wages. Some of our biggest industries have realized that their workers must have job pride if the most effective work is to be done. The foremanship conferences which have been developed in the Phelps-Dodge Mining Company, in the Great Western Sugar Company, and other organizations, were more for the purpose of developing job pride than for any other purpose.
5. Assignments should challenge creative ability. It is the responsibility that is attached to the job that does more toward this than what the job is called. Recently I had an opportunity to visit two jobs that were concerned with landscape beautification. In the one case I found a boy going around over the ground picking up papers with a stick. In the other case I found that a group of boys, in co-operation with some landscape architects in the city, had planned a development and beautification of the grounds around the building. In the one case you had the breaking down of morale; in the other case you had the development of occupational efficiency and a realization of doing something for the school and community, as well as the development of creative ability.
6. Assignments should be carried out under supervision. Lack of supervision of assignments not infrequently causes youth to develop attitudes and habits of irresponsibility.
7. Periodic check-ups, overhauling and evaluation of assignments, should be carried on by the principals of the schools in company with teachers and other regular employees, under whose direction NYA assignment is accomplished.
8. There should be a wage that has a relationship to the work done. There should be fair labor relationships in the school-work program just as there should be in adult life.

There are some people who object to paying youth wages under this kind of work-service program. They say that lesson learning itself pro-

vides the work experience youth needs. That, instead of paying youth wages for work performed, we should pay youth simply to learn in school. To my mind that is education in reverse. It is my opinion, that if we assist youth to stay in school, we should have a bona fide work program if we have a work program at all. As much as I object to the dole idea, it would be better frankly to give the dole than to have a pseudo work program which will give youth wrong ideas and the wrong attitude toward the work world which he is approaching as a young adult. Some uphold the point of view that wages should not be paid by using the argument that young men each year are being paid to attend army and navy schools, such as West Point and Annapolis. Yes, these people are paid, but they are expected to give, as a return for this training, even unto their life. These people are under contract to the government for return of this wage in future service in the government's military and naval defense.

An adequate work program in a secondary school will give young people a real chance to show what they can do outside of the classroom. They will get a real exploratory experience, for which we have sought opportunities during the last twenty years. This exploratory experience, with its resulting guidance value, may enable these young people to discover some of their abilities, and aptitudes. Personality maladjustments may be overcome, thereby preventing keen disappointment in later years. For this reason we probably should provide opportunity to secure varied work experience, supplemental to their academic education. In this way we may conserve human energies and put them ultimately to their maximum use. Work experience has another educational value. No greater understanding of another person's work in life, and the importance of that job to our social welfare, can be gained than by doing that job. Working with other people to accomplish a task, fosters a spirit of co-operation and develops tolerance and understanding of the other person's attitudes and ideals. People, as well as nations, are often suspicious of each other until they come to know and understand their differences by working together. As an able school man in Vermont recently put it, "We are usually down on a thing until we are upon it."

#### BONA FIDE WORK EXPERIENCE IS NECESSARY

There is no question in my mind but that we have come to the period when we must do something very soon to develop, not only for the NYA youth, but for all youth in secondary schools, a bona fide work experience. We have come through these three periods: of work as a means to education, through the period of all work and no education, and have just passed through that period of education and no work. We are coming to the period when work and education as we have known it, must be combined to make a total education program. I was impressed a few days ago by a statement made by a leading American educator. He said that we had had two great educational revolutions—when we passed from Latin-Grammar school to the academy, and, when we passed from the academy to the secondary school. He believes that we are now entering the third period of

revolution and that this opportunity, given to such agencies as the schools and the Youth Administration, may test the ability of schoolmen to make this period one of *evolution* instead of *revolution*.

I believe, myself, that schoolmen have the imagination, the understanding and the ability to do this job. I would not admit that we, as schoolmen, must turn to some other group or agency to do the job for us. I believe that we must be eager to accept all the available assistance we may get during the evolutionary period, but I believe that we should never, for one moment, give up the idea that it is our total responsibility to do the total job of education for young people. It is because we believe this in the National Youth Administration that we have set up school-work councils over this nation, it is the reason that schoolmen have been selected to do a vital part of the work which concerns this agency. I can see that it will take all agencies working together to do the whole job. I know, for my part, when I return to the field of education, I will be anxious to get the assistance that is given by an agency which allows the flexibility which the National Youth Administration encourages.

This whole job that involves work experience as a part of education is a tremendous challenge to the educational world and I have faith that we schoolmen will accept the challenge to turn out a generation of youth who, because of their total adjustment in life, will strengthen and perpetuate democracy. I believe that we are all seeing that work experience is a vital part of our total education and that, seeing it, we will all work together to do the job.

### Work Experience—Its Possibilities for the Secondary School

ROBERT S. GILCHRIST

*Chairman, Colorado School Work Council*

*Director of Secondary Education, Greeley, Colorado*

How can work experience be utilized in the secondary-school curriculum? I doubt if it can be utilized to any significant degree unless considered very important. Have you ever seen anyone who did something very worthwhile unless he thought it was important? Marconi did not discover the wireless without profound recognition of its possibilities. The steam engine was not invented without real work and without some of its possibilities in mind. In all, the really important things of the world have been done by people who felt a real challenge to figure out something. "Where there is a will there is a way," and this does not apply only to geniuses, but to all people.

Is work experience for youth important? We will agree that it is, because we think human beings are worth something. We believe boys and girls have a right to develop into the most that they are capable of becoming. But they do not have this opportunity today. Four million of them, out of school, between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five, do not even have jobs. You know, as well as I, that our present schools are a mere palliative to

many who are enrolled. So work experiences are necessary for those who are in our schools as well as for those who are out of school and unemployed.

Our society has changed from one primarily agriculture to one largely industrial. Is it not important that we evolve a school program which fits into these social changes? You know what has happened to work in our social evolution. You know that the home no longer provides sufficient work; neither does private industry. Then, too, the ratio of youth to adults has decreased. There are more adults to do the work of the world than there used to be. Are we going to let these young people feel that they are not wanted? No, I do not think so. I think we do recognize the importance of providing them with real education, and I think we will further agree that real education must have work as a fundamental part of it. The secondary school deserves commendation for its accomplishments. Nowhere else in the world do we find so many young people in secondary schools, and much has been done to make their education effective. But we cannot, we must not, become satisfied. Present conditions demand still further progress.

Dr. Mann has ably pointed out the important values of work experience to secondary-school youth. I should like to emphasize that these values must be considered important by the adults responsible for education. First of all, the principals must consider it important. The Educational Policies Commission, in its study of citizenship in secondary schools, discovered something which all of us probably already knew but which we were not articulate about, that as a principal is, so generally is his school. When you find a school with a real leader, you generally find a good school. Find a school with a principal who lacks vision, and little real education will probably be taking place in that school. So it is all-important that the principal recognize the possibilities of work experience in the development of young people.

But we cannot stop here. We will never get work experience into the curriculum and reap its values unless teachers sense the potential educative values of work. Then let us remember too, that the adults of the communities ultimately determine the policies of the schools. They too then, must realize the values to be derived from work experiences. We cannot go very far without their support; in fact, stimulating them to demand changes in our schools to meet the changing needs of our young people is part of our function. Among our parents and laymen will be found various adult groups who have real influence on secondary education. I speak of labor groups, of chambers of commerce, of service clubs. Let's get their co-operation. And then, of course, let us not forget boys and girls themselves. High-school boys and girls are really young adults. In a democracy they must assume rather soon complete responsibility for their behavior. But we cannot expect them to assume this responsibility if we do not give them the opportunity to see how to develop a favorable social behavior. If they consider it important to work, you will find a real ally in any attempt you make to provide work experience.

For the principal who recognizes the importance of work experience and who is trying to give leadership to teachers, parents and students, many techniques must be used. People must be encouraged to get out and look at youth at work—the resident projects of NYA, the CCC camps, the boys and girls working on NYA projects in and around the schools. Just observing boys and girls doing real work goes a long way toward selling a person on its value. Then, too, a recognition of the benefits of work experience will come about more quickly when adults start checking up on their schools in terms of the behavior of their children rather than in terms of the subject matter being offered. They will ask, Is there an assurance that the study of subject matter does an individual good, except as it influences his behavior? His behavior here and now, not his behavior thirty years from now when he is an adult citizen is what they are interested in. And we, as educators, know that the behavior traits developed while young will continue on throughout the life of the adult.

#### IMPLEMENTING WORK EXPERIENCE IN THE CURRICULUM

Now, what techniques can be used to help educators and others to put into practice what they believe about the value of work experience in the school curriculum? Probably nothing takes the place of information. If the secondary-school principal becomes thoroughly articulate in his thinking concerning the possibilities of work experience in the curriculum to make a better school, then something ought to happen. Nothing will take the place of a little reflective thinking about what has been happening in America during the past hundred years. Without looking at a book you can recall from your own experience the tremendous shift in our society from a rural to an urban people. You can cite illustration upon illustration as to what this means in its creation of an artificial environment for young people. Ask yourself if the school of today is a realistic place where boys and girls do discover work experience and get the satisfaction which can come only through genuine accomplishment.

Then you can help yourself by reading of successful attempts by school people all over the country. Bulletin number 90, of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, will help. Your state student-work council will be invaluable to you. Publications of many educational organizations are including suggestive means for providing effective work experiences. The American Youth Commission has given especial emphasis to this problem in its publication.

After you become enthusiastic yourself and are articulate in your thinking about the actual means by which work experience can be provided, then you are in a very good position to kindle the interest of others—your community, your faculty, and your pupils.

May I emphasize here, that the principal who has discovered a method of conducting group discussions in which teachers are allowed to go from where they are to where they want to go through thinking rather than by a telling method will have the best results. I have confidence that a secondary-school faculty which is given an opportunity to face this question of

whether work experience should be included in the curriculum will come out with a program that is better than what the school now has. But they must feel that they have a part in its development rather than that they are "bulletinized" about what they are to do with an idea which is not theirs and in which they see no meaning.

#### NYA STUDENT-WORK PROGRAMS

The experiences of the NYA student-work program offer us a wealth of suggestions for instigating worth-while jobs in our schools. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals has collected, classified and published in their April Bulletin of last year, a list of the better NYA projects being carried out in the schools today. Another is planned for this year as the May 1941 issue of *THE BULLETIN*.

They have classified these jobs into five categories. The *first* of these is construction and maintenance. Described are such jobs as constructing, repairing and remodeling buildings, playgrounds, and furniture, and maintenance of school gardens and grounds. To show how effective such a program can be I would like to explain one such secondary-school project. The San Diego High School, under the NYA school-work program, constructed a frame building (24 feet by 30 feet), a library counter, shelves, trophy cabinets, magazine racks, bookcases, and hurdles for the use of the school and the pupils.

The *second* classification is clerical assistance and service. Work in this area includes services to the community, board of education, school nurse, a study of graduates and jobs in the office. Because of the interests of the Ortonville High School, Ortonville, Minnesota, in what might further be done to expand its vocational guidance program for the best interests of all the pupils, the decision was made that it would be advantageous to determine what had become of the secondary-school graduates of the last five-year period. This program was carried on by the NYA students.

The *third* category is called departmental-assistance projects. Included here is work such as library service and book repair in school and town libraries, dark-room picture development, laboratory assistance, recreational assistance, making dresses for orphans, and cafeteria services. At Presentation Academy in Louisville, Kentucky, NYA girls made curtains and linens for use in the cafeteria, towels to be used in the foods department, and dresses for orphaned children.

The *fourth* category includes semi-professional projects. Here we find work in experimental orchards, first-aid rooms, recreational centers, dramatic departments, dental clinics, hospitals and school health department. Six boys in Chaffey Junior College, Ontario, California, were assigned to work in an experimental orchard in the development of fruits through cross pollination. They hope to perfect a peach tree which will withstand any kind of weather. They gained experience in pruning, cross pollination and the upkeep of an orchard. All of the boys assigned to this project were majors in agriculture and were vitally interested in their jobs.



Additional examples of student-work experiences which cannot be classified easily into the categories listed above include assistance in the kindergarten, running movie machines for noon recreation, and working in the vocational guidance office, employment bureau and student exchange. In the Victoria High School, Virginia, NYA pupils were assigned to maintain and improve the vocational and employment bureau for pupils. They prepared special interests charts, corresponded with colleges and with men in the professions, and secured a list of speakers. These pupils worked directly under the supervision of the principal. The project assisted several pupils in choosing a college or a trade and helped to bring the school and community together.

To the degree that educators want to include work experience in the curriculum, I predict that the gap which now exists between youth and adulthood will be closed. The out-of-school youth problem will be markedly alleviated. The median crime age will not be at nineteen, because nineteen-year-olds will have a place in society, will feel that they are wanted. No longer will the secondary school graduate its seniors on a June evening and drop them unmercifully in the laps of a society unready to absorb them vocationally. The school and society will assume their responsibility to see that the induction of youth into adulthood is a gradual process, that the school relinquishes its supervision of youth to the degree that society assumes its obligations for their employment. This will apply not only to the vocational areas of living but also to other areas. Some day we will have an education which takes care of the needs of young people when they have those needs, not several years before. Young people will recognize their school as a place where they go for help when they need help.

If we are to develop a school in which drop-outs do not occur, then the school must place a new emphasis on guidance. The school must never be guilty of trying to adjust every boy or girl, no matter what his background, what his needs, or what his interests, to an inflexible, rigid curriculum. It will have to allow time for guidance. We talk a lot about guidance, but many of us do very little of it. Just where is individualized guidance going to take place in a school where the doors are locked until ten minutes before starting time, and where the students are together in classrooms all day long and are hurried out at the end of the day?

The school in which work experiences will be an integral part, will be a *community school*. The youth must be able to say, "My school is my world." They deserve a group-life atmosphere just as much as do we adults. Where else can they get this feeling of belonging in our modern society? The school must assume this role. If young people are to think of their school as their community and group life, then the experiences in the school will have to be gauged in the "here and now," not in the unpredictable future. Educators will have to agree to the point of view that the surest guarantee for good citizenship tomorrow is good citizenship today. There is no use in reading about and talking about adult citizenship to secondary-school youth except to the degree that they sense and are mature



enough to participate in adult citizenship. They must first be good adolescent citizens. We must give much more consideration to civic education of the type related in the book *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book in Civic Education*,<sup>1</sup> prepared by The Educational Policies Commission which describes youth actually participating in making their school a better place in which to live and work.

What I am doing now is trying to develop the idea that we will find a way to provide work experience in school if the philosophy, the whole setting of the school, is geared toward making for an effective education. For example, take reading: it is a means by which individuals secure vicarious experience. Now vicarious experiences, if they are to have meaning, must grow out of actual experiences. But I wonder if we have not forgotten this. How much of our present curriculum is an attempt to educate youth by having them read about things without enough chance to live in a world of reality? If work experience is provided in the school curriculum and related experiences, such as observation of workers and observation of the manner in which various communities live and make their living, then boys and girls will want to read.

I have often heard teachers say, "It takes longer to show the student how to do the job than for me to do it myself." This is a dangerous attitude; what if it does take twice as long to teach a boy or girl how to do a job as to do it yourself? The test of effectiveness is how much learning takes place while the youth does the work.

Many boys and girls have little to do in the summertime. The possibilities for them to develop school and community recreational facilities for summer play are unlimited. Secondary-school youth are idealistic. They will work when they see the need for that service and how their activities will contribute to the community welfare. Every youth survey shows that recreational and social facilities are woefully inadequate for all youth. And, in these times, such facilities are needed to build healthy bodies and the morals of youth. Could not secondary-school pupils be given jobs to improve these facilities? I think they could; in fact, there are many examples of where they have done it with great success.

#### STARTING A WORK PROGRAM

If you believe in work experience, please be careful to establish it so people see its possibilities and its true worth. Otherwise there can be dangerous end results. Anything which is good can be bad. I think this applies to work experience in the curriculum. For example, in the olden days, mental disciplinists felt that education took place best when work of the most distasteful nature imaginable was assigned. And, too, some people are perfectly willing to have people work, but believe work in itself is enough. They let it become completely repetitive in nature and do not furnish adequate guidance and supervision. We must avoid institutionalization of work experience in the school curriculum. We cannot get a

<sup>1</sup>Published by The National Education Association, Washington D. C. 1940, 486 pp. \$1.00.

recipe as to just what projects ought to be developed in a good school and then be satisfied to utilize these for the next period of years. No, work experience to be valuable must be vital, must be real, must be socially desirable and individually beneficial. Therefore, for a given year, just what will be done will never be the same as for the year before.

Do not try to "launch" a work-experience program in your school all of a sudden. If you do, you will get results such as some schoolmen have found when they changed their report cards overnight. Work experience should be developed at the optimum rate. This rate can be determined only by observing several points; do the teachers of the faculty sense its possibilities? Are they sufficiently sold on it? Have you work projects which are real enough in nature to justify their being used? How does your community feel about work as a part of the curriculum? Do not go too fast, but on the other hand, please do not avoid attacking this problem because you do not right now see the final answer. No one sees it entirely, but for those who believe in it, ways are going to be found.

#### EVALUATION

Perhaps the best way to be sure that work experience can be capitalized upon to make for the most effective secondary education possible is to try constantly to keep an overview of the whole situation. Try always to see the forest rather than get lost in the trees. Keep asking yourself these questions: What is the school supposed to be doing in our modern society? How can we do what we are supposed to do? How can we tell whether we have done what we set out to do? Always think of your school program and curriculum in terms of how it affects the behavior of boys and girls. Most important of all, we should keep in mind the fact that an individual is a whole person and that his development demands attention to his total personality. We cannot permit ourselves to become specialists interested in isolated learnings. People simply do not learn in isolated fashion.

I know that we can all agree that secondary education today is in a critical period. With the world in conflict and the United States feeling the impact of the world situation on every hand, our present period of years is indeed an emergency. But the year 1941 is a critical time for secondary education not only because of the society in which our schools are functioning but because of the secondary school itself. We all know the transitions through which education at the secondary-school level has gone. First we had the Latin-Grammar school, then the academy, and now the secondary school. Is the present secondary school to be supplanted because it fails to adapt itself to present social conditions? The issue is clear: Will educators find only husks of formalized education left because more alert and ingenious agencies have come to the assistance of youth and are giving them the kernels of true educative experience? Or will the secondary school join with other educative agencies to see that our program of education has real "meat" in it? Our society cannot afford a waste in human and material resources.

## PANEL DISCUSSION

A panel discussion—Strengthening the Inner Defenses of American Democracy—A Challenge, led by Roy W. Hatch, Head of the Department of Social Studies, State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey, followed.

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Today we are staging a different type of picture than we have ever before staged at one of our national conventions. Two years ago, at Cleveland, we took as our theme Thornton Wilder's play, "Our Town," and gave you a picture of a rural community in Ohio—Amherst. Today, if we took a theme for this group it would be that play called, "What a Life!" We have Henry Aldridge, and Henrietta Aldridge and a half-dozen principals to make a completed picture. But there is a sort of a reverse to this one today: the students are interviewing the principals. They have been in school and they are out now. There is not quite the same attitude hanging over them that they had while they were in school. But they have a story to tell. These are human documents, they have not been touched, they are telling their own story, and I am hoping that they will tell it just as freely as a group of these boys told it to me last week at our NYA Council at Verona.

We have called this "Youth's Challenge to the Secondary-School Curriculum." A few years ago I was asked to go to Syracuse, New York, to meet a group and talk to them. It was an outstanding group of about twenty men, outstanding citizens of Syracuse.

After a good supper on being introduced, I turned to the Chairman and said, "But I have come all the way from New York and no one has yet told me either in correspondence or in my introduction, what it is I am to talk about." There came a pause, and the Chairman turned to the oldest man present and said, "Mr. Stillwell, you tell him."

Mr. Stillwell arose (and I think I shall never forget this) and he said, "Mr. Hatch, soon they are going to dig a hole in the ground and put me in it. Now I have done my life's work here in this city. These men, in their professional, and economic, and industrial capacities are also citizens of this city, building up the type of city we want it to be. We have stood for certain principles that we believe in. Now we want to know if in training young people today these principles are still sound or if there are other principles we should follow with these young people." That was age's challenge to youth; today we are staging youth's challenge to meet that one of age.

I would like to state my topic, therefore, so that it would meet both of these positions. What we are trying to do today is this: we are trying to strengthen inner defenses of American democracy. That is our challenge.

I don't want anyone here today to make a speech, but I do want to have you get these human documents. Did you notice that Dr. Mann told you that he had gained much of my philosophy from listening to the stories of the work experiences of these young people? He went to the source, and from that source built his philosophy. Let us follow that routine here today.

Now go with me to an NYA Camp. Here is a group of forty or fifty

boys talking to me. I want the first one of these to talk to you this afternoon. He is an athlete. He would feel better, I am sure, if he were playing third base, than he does at the moment. He has come to tell you his story—Jimmy Pelesky of the NYA Camp at Verona, New Jersey. (James Pelesky graduated from high school in 1940 and is now in an NYA resident center).

JIMMY PELESKY: Thank you, Professor Hatch. I am sure I would enjoy third base much more than I do this, but I do have something important to tell you people. Last year I graduated from a high school, a good high school, I think, but after graduation I went to look for a job, which as you know most of do. As I was looking I found I was not prepared for a job as well as I should be. Then, naturally, I kept on looking and I found the same story everywhere. As I traced back why all this happened, I came to the advisory board in our high school. I know that when I first entered high school they gave me a piece of paper to write down the course that I wanted to take. I talked with my pals, who had been in school before me and they told me they thought the industrial course was good. I was mechanically-minded myself, so naturally I filled out the industrial course. We had three other courses: academic, commercial, and general.

Well, it was all right. I went through the first few months, until baseball season came around. Then I went out for baseball and started to neglect my homework—and "I got away with it." That was all right with me, I was just a young fellow, and I thought: Next year I will buckle down and I will turn over a new leaf. But the next year I went out for basketball. And the following year I went out for football. I forgot to tell you that I changed courses every year—every year I thought I would take an easier one. I can honestly and truthfully say that in my senior year I didn't do half the work of an average student—but I graduated, if you can call it that.

There is one thing I would like to say: It is not altogether the high school's fault (don't get me wrong). They cannot make you play baseball, and they cannot make you go on the stage and act—which I did—but they can get ahold of you and give you a person to tell you what you ought to take, and make you stick to it—a certain course. That would have helped me very much. I am sure the whole course of my life would have been changed. In conclusion I would like to say that too many mothers and fathers are disillusioned by the fact that so many of the boys and girls go to school just to get a diploma. When they go looking for a job, that diploma is the only proof they have that they have had a high-school education. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Let us have three or four of these boys and girls talk to us. Then we will have some discussion, I hope, in regard to what they say. Emmett Morgan—Red, ladies and gentlemen. (Emmett Morgan attended high school only four months, now in NYA resident center.)

EMMETT MORGAN: Well, ladies and gentlemen, as Professor Hatch

has already told you, we haven't been studying this, it comes from us direct to you. I have a few cases to bring up, but I don't want you to get the idea that we are all graduates of high schools, we aren't. I myself am no graduate, I attended a parochial elementary school in my early school years, and graduated. Then I went to a public school, and found that they had three courses: civics, commercial and general. I didn't think I would like the civics course so I didn't take that one. I figured I wasn't suited for the commercial course, so I didn't bother with that. The only one left for me to take if I wanted to go to high school was the general course.

I will give you an outline of the day's work in the general course in my high school: my first period in the morning consisted of mathematics. Mathematics, as far as I was concerned in that school was of no use to me whatsoever. I had already had those problems in my seventh year in the parochial school. Naturally that grew monotonous. My second period was science. I enjoyed science, we had never had that in parochial school and I went at that hand over fist. My third period was music. Take a look at me and think of what I would look like as a musician. [Laughter] I know that sounds funny.

My fourth period was a study period. My father is one of those good old-timers who is rather strict about school. He made me do all my studying the night before, so I thought when I went to study the next period that there was nothing I had to study. That was forty-five minutes of my time gone to waste. The fifth period—the first in the afternoon—was Spanish. I had never had Spanish in the parochial school, so I enjoyed that, but at the present time I cannot see where it has done me any good. My sixth period was gymnastics. We didn't have any of that in my old school either. I am not a professional athlete but I did enjoy all the athletic sports. But this tops it off: in the seventh period we had English. When we went into the English class, the first thing the teacher said, after she gave us a few odds and ends of ideas, was "Diagram these sentences." That wasn't hard for me. I had already had that in the seventh grade, and I figured: what is the use of my going to this school if I am repeating what I did in the parochial school?

The only thing they gave me in the first year in high school that I had not had in my old school was a book called *The Odessey*. As you all know, *The Odessey* goes way back to B. C. It was written by Homer. I read sentence after sentence, and chapter after chapter three or four times before I even started to get any idea of what it was all about. [Laughter]

Well, now that I have brought out all these things, I don't want you to think I have anything against high school—I haven't. I have a younger brother going to high school right now, back in my home town and I would like to see him graduate—I really would. But so far as I was concerned, high school wasn't doing me a bit of good, so naturally when I had the chance to get a job I took it.

But that didn't last long either. I was running around from place

to place picking up an odd dollar here and an odd dollar there because I needed it. I can truthfully say since I have been in the NYA Camp in Verona that I have learned more there in a line that I think will do me more good in my later life than I would have learned in high school in four years. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Charles Carbone. (Charles Carbone left high school after two and one-half years; now in NYA resident center.)

CHARLES CARBONE: Ladies and gentlemen, as I gather it, we are here to discuss the advantages and the disadvantages of high school. I would like first to speak on the advantages. Before entering high school our class was addressed by an adviser from high school who discussed different courses in the school. From this we gathered a fair knowledge of what we would like to make our life work. I picked the industrial course, specializing in machine shop. As the years went by I grew more interested in this machine-shop course. My academic subjects were English, mathematics, mechanical drawing—anything and everything one would want in a machine-shop course.

But here were some disadvantages. Before finishing my course in high school, my family moved to New York. There, for three weeks I went around like a dog wagging its tail, looking for a school—I was looking for a school and they were looking for war. I finally was accepted in one school. The reason I was turned down in the schools was not because my report card was bad, but because my report card was pretty high. Here I was asked how many terms of English I had had, how many terms of mathematics, and of mechanical drawing. I told them that I had had five of each. So in place of mathematics, I was given music; in place of mechanical drawing, general textiles, and in place of English, science. As for the machine shop—I was one of a group of forty boys. From these forty boys, seven were picked to go into a cage with seven machines, to work during an afternoon period. We did not know the first thing about them, because we had not been shown how to work these machines. I consider it a complete waste of time. Instead of furthering my knowledge in machine-shop practice I was losing what I had learned faster than I was gaining anything new.

I am now attending an NYA Camp. Since I have been there I have gained a fair knowledge of machine-shop practice. I am sure I will get a fair job on leaving. Our Mayor, who was supposed to be here, Mr. Bill Smeeder, through his education in the NYA Camp received a job yesterday, which is paying him good wages. What I am getting at is this: if one school has so much to offer, why cannot the others do so? [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: You have heard Charles say that the Mayor of the NYA Camp at Verona was to be with us today and that he secured a position paying him sixty-two cents an hour and ninety-three cents an hour for over-time. Of course we couldn't stand in the way of that. Now one or two more of these stories and then I am going to turn to Dr. Kent



to make his comment upon them.—Rudy Boettcher. (Rudy Boettcher graduated from high school and is now in an NYA resident center.)

RUDY BOETTCHER: Ladies and gentlemen, I came up here to tell you about what I am doing in an NYA Camp, and my reason for being there. I went to high school, but unlike Red, I liked music. I had five years of training in playing the violin. Music was something new to me, and playing in an orchestra was something great. Also there was opportunity for me to take up the bass tuba. This I did at the end of my freshman year, so that I could play in the band. I finished that in high school, having had a very good time at it. I think music is one thing they should keep in high school, but toward the end of my sophomore year and the beginning of my junior year, I realized that high school consisted of either the commercial course, the college-preparatory course (which was "out" for me) and the general course. There was no vocational training at all, so I looked around.

Our county did not offer anything in the line of training at all, so I went to the neighboring county and I asked if I could be admitted to their school and receive some training. The answer was, no. I was not a resident of the county and therefore I could not enter their schools.

I then decided to finish the commercial part of the general course and get a job. In my job I was required more or less to work in an office and be a *runner* at times. I had to pass through the maintenance department, the machine shop, the sheet metal shop, the woodworking shop and the welding shop. I got interested in the machine shop, which I had previously been interested in and lost the desire for going to work in the morning, sitting behind a desk pushing a pencil. As a result of that, I lost my job. I figured I would go out and ask for an apprentice job. But that didn't work: "you have no vocational training at all, I am sorry, we cannot use you; if you did have, we could place you." So I decided the best thing for me to do would be to go to a camp where I am now, and receive the training which I am very glad to receive. It seems that this war has created quite a few jobs, and it seems it is waking up the people and the educators to the fact that we need vocational training. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Dr. Kent, you have heard the concluding statement of Rudy, that it took a war to wake up the educators of the United States to the need of vocational education, will you make your comment on that? Dr. Ronald Kent, Director of Vocational Education, in Essex County, New Jersey.

DR. KENT: I suppose it has taken a war to wake us up. I would like to make this one comment on the NYA situation. It may make it clearer what some of the boys are talking about. At the resident center at Verona they have a variety of school experiences. The schools in Essex County have introduced vocational departments, to give the training side of that picture. These boys get about sixty hours of training a month. Half of that time is spent on strictly related vocational work, through individual instruction related to whatever they happen to be doing. A variety of experiences are



provided. We also include certain work which we hope will help them understand life in its broader aspects.

I think it might be desirable to comment on one thing: I don't know whether it was our school the young man happened to come to and could not get in because he was not a resident, or not, but it does bring out this fact, that in this game of trying to give boys and girls the variety of experiences in the industrial world they need, that we probably have to make some kind of an arrangement so that when they cannot get it in the small community they can go across the line and get it somewhere.

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you very much, Dr. Kent.

DR. SIDNEY V. ROWLAND (Superintendent of Schools, Radnor township, Wayne, Pa.): Since most schools are small schools, at least the Office of Education at Washington tells us that, they cannot provide the vocational experience that these boys want. It seems to me that we must face that, because the need is quite evident from the three documents that you have heard today. We have tried this in a small school in Pennsylvania. We have asked the community to supply the jobs so that if we had Red or Jimmy, the third baseman, we would say to him in his junior or senior year: "What do you want to do?" And if he could find a job that he wanted to do or if we could find one for him, we would then let him work two weeks on the job and two weeks in school. The drawback is that he would have to get somebody who thought in the same pattern as he, to occupy that job for the other two weeks. But between them if they could find the job, they could have it. They would receive the training on the job and we would give the related work in the two weeks when they returned to school—the things that the employer, the boy, and the school counselor who visits the boy on the job would decide would make the school experience the most valuable contribution to the boy on his training job.

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you, Dr. Rowland. Now let us return to these students. I want you to see that they are not selected from any one group or any one section. I want to introduce a young woman now, who was a sophomore in college, to get her story—Pearl Luefsky. (Pearl Luefsky is in her second year in Montclair State Teachers College, New Jersey.)

PEARL LUEFSKY: Ladies and gentlemen, when I started high school I set a goal for myself: I was going to be valedictorian. For four years I worked, and I achieved that goal, but well do I remember the day after graduation. I sat down and cried bitterly. Why? I had gotten what I wanted. I had been accepted in every college where I had applied. But what if financial circumstances wouldn't allow me to go to college? What then? I wasn't prepared for anything. Then I began to think of my fellow graduates and the experiences they were facing. In our high school we had no vocational guidance at all. The Latin teacher walked in one day and to the class which was supposedly taking Latin she handed out pieces of paper with questions. We answered those questions, not knowing what we were doing. Two days later we were handed a piece of paper. On the paper were my grades which were something like A, for teacher B, for doctor, C, for

lawyer. No interpretation was made of those grades. You didn't know that you had taken a vocational test, you just answered questions. For the students who wanted to take mechanical courses there was no opportunity.

There was one instructor who taught in two grammar schools, one parochial school and one high school. He was also so busy with outside activities which kept him busy most of the day that in fact when he came to class he wouldn't supervise the students. He was an entertainer. He was figuring out speeches that he would give at night.

The machines the boys had to work on were outmoded. They could be used only two periods in the afternoon. Near my home, two aeronautical factories have been set up. The students from our school cannot get jobs. They cannot meet the competition. They have had no experience, nor have they had educational training.

You will say: "Why didn't they go to a vocational school?" As the fellows here have cited, in our county, which is one of the biggest counties in New Jersey, there is no public or private vocational school. The boy or the girl who wants to go to a trade school must have the money to pay the transportation and tuition, and perhaps living expenses in a town where there is such a school. Now, if a student cannot afford to go to such a school, what is he to do? I think that there is a great need, truly, for vocational guidance and especially vocational schools. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Now let us take this one step further: Lila Berman, also a sophomore in a Teacher's College.

LILA BERMAN: While I was in high school, I took a college-preparatory course which thoroughly qualified me for entrance into college. However, there is one respect in which I feel that my high-school training was inadequate. Almost every girl will some day be called upon to keep house and make a home for someone. Yet what do our high schools do to prepare girls along domestic lines? I know practically nothing about cooking, sewing, consumer buying or anything connected with household duties. It is not because I am disinterested in these homely arts, it is simply because I really find no time for such things in my school work, and outside affiliations keep me well occupied.

At our high school there was a household-arts course which was pursued mainly by girls interested in becoming nurses or dietitians. No courses in homemaking were open to the other girls in the school. I feel such courses should be made available to all the girls in the high school. I think they might be included in the regular curriculum or extra-curricular activities. Almost any high-school girl would be interested in a household arts club, if properly directed and guided. Don't you think there is a need for more domestic training in high schools so that girls may thus be helped to face life? [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: At this point I am going to ask Dr. William R. O'Dell, assistant Superintendent of Schools in Oakland, California, to comment.

DR. O'DELL: We are sitting in the back row partly for protection. Anyone coming here to tell what California does is at a decided disadvantage, and in actual positive danger, I suspect. There are indications in what already has been said, of "meaninglessnesses" that we have in our high-school programs—that is quite a word, I realize, but I think it has an important implication for many of the things already said.

The first thing is these curriculums that we have don't mean anything at all to any one except us, and they are just an administrative device of convenience. The difference between an industrial, a general, a commercial and an academic curriculum, I think has long since passed, with the kinds of kids that we have in school today, and had two and three years ago. In the second place, the "meaninglessness" of a subject—to ask a pupil how many semesters of English he has had, and then say, "You having had five, you go into the sixth," is a perfectly outmoded kind of thing for us to do.

The one thing that I was asked to talk about is the program which we have developed in some of our high schools, in fact all of our high schools. We call it Senior Problems. We don't know what else to call it. It is a non-departmentalized thing, in the beginning. I am sure, as the last speaker said, as long as we want students to elect a course in home economics or in commerce or in some one of those subjects, we are not going to be able to get our academic people into a lot of the things they should have. So we deliberately called it something new and gave it to no department. For the first time we have the possibility of getting all of our students into this program whether they are going to college or whether they think they or we know they are not.

Once there, we work with them in terms of what we think they do need. The fact that they are in a particular grade level does not tell us anything about them. The whole thing that I think is important is that we are recognizing in this a technique for placing students and teachers together a long enough time for them to get acquainted so that they can tell these things you have heard here, to the teacher at the start of the course instead of after they leave the high school—quitting, graduating, or going to a teacher's college.

In that we ask these teachers simply to say: "What is it as a group you would like to do when you leave high school?" In a good many cases these teachers and students are together for half of the day—three periods consecutively. In the beginning the pupils didn't like it any better than the teachers did. Gradually they have both become used to it. Sometimes they become used to it by having the teachers transferred. [Laughter]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Dr. O'Dell's statement to the effect that we should get acquainted early so that we can understand each other, brings up, it seems to me, a very interesting case here. Julius Lovett, I want you to tell your story. (Julius Lovett is in first year in Newark Junior College, Newark, New Jersey.)

JULIUS LOVETT: Professor Hatch, ladies and gentlemen, I am a graduate of a large city high school. I did not come here today to register a

personal complaint against high school administration, but rather in the hope that some prospective high-school student will receive a more practical education than I received, an education better adapted to his needs, an education that will serve the youth successfully, and an education that will serve the youth in coping successfully and intelligently with his problems in life, and above all, an education which he can use.

Surely we would not have come here today for this discussion if we were certain that the high schools were fulfilling these dire needs. Perhaps you will ask me what do I think is wrong with the high school situation? Frankly, I would say that proper guidance is uppermost in my mind.

At the high school which I attended the only guidance I remember receiving was at the time of graduation. Then we were given mimeographed sheets and told to list information which we intended to go into the year-book. Mind you now, this was four years after entering the high school. It is my opinion that if guidance practices were established that would work a hundred per cent for the interest of the youth, that would seek to put the student in the right channels, that would take the incoming students and acquaint them with the various courses, the subjects in those courses, and also to help students select those subjects in which he was more likely to succeed, I am sure there would be less maladjustment.

For nearly five years I have been seeking to find out exactly what my high-school education has fitted me for, and frankly I have found no answer. Now I am registered at the NYA Center in Verona New Jersey, and in three months with the machine-shop work, together with the related training, I think that I have become more able to find a place in the outside world than with all the four years of high-school education. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: I am going to ask Ed Johnson to make a rather summarizing statement for the NYA boys at Verona. (Ed Johnson was in high school two and a half years; now in NYA resident center.)

ED JOHNSON: Well, ladies and gentlemen, most of these fellows have touched upon this subject of guidance. I figure that in a junior high school, or public grammar school (I went to a Catholic grammar school) if there was somebody there who could co-operate with the parents and this boy, and find out what he is best fitted for, his interests could be determined. I have nothing against high school—as the other fellows have said—I got along pretty well, I had two and a half years, and I figure I am going to finish. I took a CP course, I intended to go to college, something fell through and I was stopped.

I have been up there two weeks and in those two weeks I think I learned more than I did in the two and a half years in high school.

I live in a fairly large city in New Jersey and in that city there are several vocational schools. These vocational schools are there for anybody who wants to use them. But I think this way, if there is nobody to tell a fellow when he comes out of the grammar school to which one he should go and what to take, there is no sense in having them. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Now I am going to ask Dr. Clarence Dunsmore, the Director of the Guidance Department of Education at New Rochelle, New York, to say a word at this point.

DR. DUNSMORE: Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen, it has been very interesting to listen to what has happened to these young people who have gone out of school, apparently without what they feel has been an adequate vocational guidance and vocational training. It is my observation, at least, that the business of preparing for the transition from the school to work is not a sudden process, but it starts way back, perhaps in grade eight or grade seven or grade nine, depending pretty much upon your school organization; that these young people have a right as students of the school to be studied and analyzed as individuals, and that out of that should come a program of education adapted to their particular abilities and interests and needs—whether those are economic, social or of other types.

The school should individualize its education from the standpoint of studying each pupil, seeing that he has adequate information regarding the opportunities which are available, and is given guidance not only when he gets ready to leave school, but all the way along. I don't know what your program is, but in our own school, based on a group intelligence test survey which was made of our entire school system not long ago, we have twenty-eight per cent of our students who are potential college-preparatory material, we have fifty-six per cent who are potential vocational-school material, and sixteen per cent who are not qualified apparently for either of those two particular groups. Our big problem, at the present time, is what to do with the sixteen per cent, but we must be aware of the fact that these boys and girls, as they enter high school are confronted with a definite problem of finding a way and a means of getting a good education which is going to help them to earn a living and to be a good citizen of the community when they come out of school. That cannot be done with guidance, no matter how effective it may be, started at the senior level.

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you, Dr. Dunsmore.

Bobby Barry, will you tell us your story please? (Bobby Barry graduated from high school and was in NYA two and one-half years; now doing secretarial and bookkeeping work.)

BOBBY BARRY: I would like to present to you three needs, as I see them so far as my own high-school training is concerned. I graduated from a high school which is a very fine high school. I took an academic course, and as far as the academic course was concerned, it gave me the necessary units to enter college. I matriculated at a large eastern college. For two and a half years I studied something that I thought would be very glamorous—dramatic art. I liked to be the center of attention—I found out afterward that I didn't like it at all, and when I found that out, at the same time the sky dropped out of my father's pocketbook, and I couldn't go to school anymore, so I came home. I drifted for a long time, and

during that drifting period I found myself and the type of thing which I would like to do—social-service work.

I drifted to the Y.W.C.A. and from there I drifted into bookkeeping and secretarial work, without any experience for that particular field, but for the sheer need of clothes. I really feel that this drifting period was worth while to a great extent, because through it I found myself. I feel that my high school should have had a vocational guidance instructor, or leader interested in the individual needs of pupils. We should also have had a continuation of social science. I might explain that we did have it in our junior high school, but we did not have it at all as a carry over from junior high school to senior high school. I would like to see that carried over in the curriculum. I would also like to see in our high schools a Negro history course to promote better race relationships than exist today. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you, Bobby Barry.

Now I want a little discussion at that point. She feels the need of having had more training in the social sciences.

I am going to ask Principal Carl Suter of Leonia, New Jersey, to say a word to you there. I happen to know that Leonia has had an outstanding student council, and I want him to tell you a little bit about that organization.

MR. SUTER: Mr. Hatch, ladies and gentlemen, the success of a student council, in my estimation can be determined or set by a sympathetic faculty. If we have a group of teachers who will stimulate discussion in the home rooms and will foster the spirit, we can go a great way in doing something as an actual example of democratic living. Those of you who have read the March BULLETIN of the Secondary-School Principals Association know the wide range of schemes. Any scheme is good if it has the support of the faculty, the administrative group, and also if there is a need felt by the group.

We have an upper house, known as a student council, comprised of twenty-three members: nine seniors, six juniors, four sophomores, two freshmen, and two from the eighth grade. We are a four-year high school; the eighth grade happens to be housed in our building therefore we think it is a good plan to have them in there. We also have one from the incoming class of sophomores in Palisade Park. There you see we have worked out an arrangement of giving recognition of leadership, which shows signs of exercise.

Then we have a lower house known as the representative assembly, based on the home room. We somehow feel that the home-room delegate can get closer to the student body than the student council. This assembly meets once a month. The student council meets once a week, and the committees of each work together in harmony. We also have a student court. We have here on the platform our presiding judge, the supreme court justice of our student court, Catherine Gannon. She can tell you

something about the organization. (Catherine Gannon is now a student in Leonia High School, New Jersey.)

CATHERINE GANNON: In Leonia High School our student court is organized at the first or second meeting of the student council. Our student judge (that is I) and our district attorney are elected from the upper house. They must be seniors, while the sergeant-at-arms and the court secretary are elected from the lower house. We have six members on our jury, three are elected from the upper house and three from the lower house. Incidentally, each officer of our court has an alternate who is as well qualified for the position as is the permanent officer. We hold session once a week. If an officer cannot be present at a session of court it is his responsibility to see that his alternate is there.

To a person outside of our school perhaps many of our cases would seem very insignificant, but actually to us they are not. Here are a few examples of cases: a student may receive a summons for going through the hall while classes are in session without a pass from his home-room teacher; for eating anywhere outside of the cafeteria in school, or for taking advantage of a student proctor in charge of a session room. We hold regular court procedure, we do not have an attorney for the defense, we feel it unwise and unnecessary. The student does have a chance to state his side of the case; he does have a chance to produce a witness if he cares to do so.

As judge of our student court I find myself in a rather difficult position, but by trying to be very impartial I have found out that I have avoided a great deal of criticism from both the faculty and students. I can proudly and honestly say that our court is gaining more prestige each day. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Principal Suter told you that one of the essentials was a faculty that could stimulate discussion, and stand behind this type of training. I want to introduce such a principal to you and have him tell you about an outstanding piece of democratic training that is going on in his school—Principal Bretnall of Millburn, New Jersey.

MR. BRETNALL: Mr. Hatch, ladies and gentlemen, if you have ever followed the history of the turf you will find that no horse has ever won the English or the American derby unless he was first tracked as a colt. It is equally true that our young people going out from high school do not miraculously attain discretion but if they are going to learn how to analyze and be sane on current questions they need to be trained in careful study within the secondary school, and in careful use of that material. In other words, to study the questions of the day; discuss them, expressing their opinion, but respecting the opinions of others which is the greatest step in democracy. Those considerations will develop one thing we have neglected in American schools, that is building up resistance against false doctrine.

To this end we have for the past ten years been going forward with the open forum. The daily newspaper should be a part of the study of



every high school. Before school in the morning a copy of the Times and the Tribune come to every room in the building. The Principal's only rule to the teachers is that nobody may ever be forbidden to read a newspaper. If the teacher cannot do a better job it is her hard luck.

With that as a basis then, we go into public questions. This is organized through our forum club, which has grown from year to year. The forum club is large enough now so we divide it into two sections with four teacher sponsors in a school of one thousand. But the forum is for the entire school, where the school meets with the panel and with a period where anyone from the floor may give his opinion or ask questions. It is just one leg of our training for democracy. We have been at it for ten years. We think it works and one of our boys from the forum is here and I will ask Bob Bodecker to tell you how it looks from the student angle.

BOB BODECKER: We have been talking a lot about preparing for jobs and what you have been trying to do in the field of work. I think it is as important to find out things about democracy and how we can better improve ourselves to be future citizens. That is something our forum club is doing. I would like to tell you a few things about our particular forum club.

Each of our forums is a school project, revolving about the plans and under the guidance of the forum club. The final result is not the effort of the students alone, but the effort of the entire school. The club itself is a regular school activity and is open to all students. Members of the club are not required to make speeches and all panel speakers are not required to be members.

One of our actual forums is an assembly of the entire school with a panel of six to twelve speakers who give short speeches expressing their honest points of view. Our discussion period is always longer than the prepared speeches. We have never set a time limit, but believe that we should continue until it seems that we have had a well-rounded discussion.

About a week before each forum, the club tries to present an outside speaker who will give us some additional information and open up the subject for us,—sort of get us interested and start the school buzzing about the forum.

An outgrowth of this forum idea, something that really shows what is being done, is the New Jersey Inter-scholastic Forum Association: It is a group of schools in northern New Jersey whose forum clubs have gotten together and are really doing some forum work of their own. A recent expansion of our own forum program was made possible through the co-operation of our school newspaper. Students may now continue discussions with the club and ask questions of the different speakers through our newspaper in a special open forum section.

Recently in one of our home-room discussions, the students were asked to indicate the things in the school which they believed best educated them for democracy. The forum was the first choice of nearly every student in that room. I know our school feels the same way, for our students look

forward to those forums. Each time more of them are getting on their feet during the discussion period.

Our open forum is giving us excellent training not only in public speaking but in clear thinking, in building for free expression of one's ideas, and in doing them extemporaneously, and in developing tolerance for the other fellow's point of view. It is real, practical training for democracy. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Bob, will you tell us some of the topics that you use in your forum please, that you have discussed? (Bob Bodecker is in junior class at Millburn High School, New Jersey.)

BOB BODECKER: We had a rousing forum on the election. I would like to add, we have no faculty members present at all except in the audience, and they are not allowed to speak. [Laughter] We have a student chairman and it is up to him to keep order. We have no disturbances at all. We have a very wonderful forum, I think. We are going to discuss conscription. Our next forum is on South American Solidarity. In the past we have discussed problems in social democracy—things that you might hear or read of in the newspapers, things that might be discussed in the town hall meeting.

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Problems in American Democracy—thank you Bob. [Applause]

Principal Bretnall told you of the significance of the newspaper. Did you ever think that that is the greatest textbook that any of us will ever read? What training do we give in the schools, to read this textbook? What is the attitude which we should take toward a discussion in our public schools of these problems of American democracy? I happen to know that Dr. Harry Stearns of Woodbury, New Jersey, is greatly interested in this problem. May we hear from you, Dr. Stearns?

DR. STEARNS: Professor Hatch is likewise interested in the cause in this state of New Jersey. We are at present engaging in the process of developing a new curriculum for the problems of the American Democracy. We have on our statute books the requirements that such a course be taught in the junior or senior years of our high school. We have for the past year been working on the preparation of such a curriculum; we feel that there has probably in the past been too little attention given to the fundamental bases of democracy as they are expressed in the Constitution, and in the expression of that Constitution, in the form of practical politics—we do have some of that in New Jersey. We feel that our boys and girls should learn something about it. Our curriculum as it is shaping up will also indulge in discussions of family relationships, the question of industrial relationships, of economic relationships and the question of rural life. We are going to have a unit in it on "Democracy and its Competitors," and we hope that it will be a living thing which will take place in the schools of our state. Professor Hatch is rendering a great deal of help in that preparation.

As I have been thinking of the problems of these young people, as they have expressed them this afternoon, I feel that some of their problems

perhaps can be solved by a wider understanding of the life into which they will find themselves soon precipitated. I am not so certain that we can solve all their problems by giving them intelligence tests and trying to decide which ones from that basis alone are suited for industrial work. I am not so certain that we can solve the problem of our friend Miss Bobbie who in high school wanted to be an actress and who had the ability to graduate from an academic course, and whose father had money to start her in college. I am afraid that if we had told her in high school that she would have done better in the work that she is now doing, she would have said, "I still want to go to college," but we do feel that if we can give these young people an introduction into some of the life that is to be about them (because Democracy is life around us) we feel that we can make some progress.

I hesitate to talk about things that are in the making. It is the same old story of counting your chickens before they are hatched. But we are just about ready to give birth to this syllabus in the problems of democracy and we hope that we may be able to report from New Jersey that we have had at least six months in a vital course in the problems of American Democracy.

I should add to it that we are not putting out a thing that is entirely untried. We have felt in our committee work that you cannot sit behind closed doors with twelve or thirteen people representing it in various and different groups, but that you nevertheless cannot put it out and have teachers in a state use it unless they know what is going on. Through the able counsel, advice and leadership of our Assistant Commissioner, Mr. Howard Dare White, we have somewhat over two hundred of those units now in experimental use among the teachers in the state, and they are going to tell us what is wrong with it, so that the final revisions can be the result of teacher direction, and so that when the syllabus goes out we hope that each teacher in the state may say, "I have had a part in it."

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Now we have two more student teachers here today and I want to get their stories before you very quickly. One of them is looking at this picture through the other fellow's eyes—Mary Fortunato. (Mary Fortunato graduated from high school in 1940 and is now employed as a secretary, a position obtained through the high school.)

MARY FORTUNATO: Mr. Hatch, ladies and gentlemen, I seem to be one of the very lucky ones that got a position after high school, but I do have a suggestion for those who did not secure a position. I graduated last June and I took a straight commercial course in high school. Just before graduation a man wrote to the school asking for a young secretary. My teacher recommended me and after an interview the job was given to me. I want to say that I know a lot of girl friends who have taken the same course but who are out of work now, even though they were just as able. It just so happened that I was the one who got the opportunity.

I have one suggestion to make and I think that if the high school had a definite placement bureau, it would help to place these students who

graduate. They are out on the loose now, doing factory work, which they could have done without a high-school education.

Another thing: I think during the senior year students should be able to do some practical work in the line that they have chosen, and gain some experience while in school. Then the placement bureau should try to secure employment for them. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you, Mary.

Dr. Rowland would you like to say a word on that point you touched upon before—what are you doing in Radnor Township, Pennsylvania?

DR. ROWLAND: We try to do just what you asked. We have succeeded in that probably better than in any other field, so far as guidance is concerned. Our people are placed without exception, and they are followed through for three or four jobs. Every time a girl gets an advancement she sends word in to our school. The school then fills that vacancy. This may involve three or four different people. We don't do this in any other field. That is where we are falling down completely. We just happen to be doing it in the commercial field.

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you, Dr. Rowland.

Now we will hear from Pat Ferrucci, who has graduated from a teachers college. (Pat Ferrucci is now a graduate student in the Montclair State Teacher's College.)

PAT FERRUCCI: Dr. Hatch, and ladies and gentlemen, in evaluating my high school, I have given consideration to the services that it did to both me and my community. Speaking for myself, I naturally am satisfied with it. It adequately prepared me for college. I gained admission to the college which I had always wanted to attend.

The college setup was very excellent, and the college advisor exercised her duties in a very efficient and a very competent manner. However, when I look at what has been done for my community I feel that the high-school curriculum and the administration of it was not as well carried out as it is in dealing with college students. I have in mind particularly seven fellows who were my closest friends. They took the general course and the commercial course in high school. They did not have any vocational guidance and neither did they have any personal counseling. When they graduated with me, I noticed that five out of the seven were not employed for a period which lasted as long as two and even three years in some cases.

-I am not blaming the high school for limiting its education to these students. Perhaps the general unfavorable business conditions enter the picture too. However, I believe that if a high school had a proper vocational guidance program and accompanied it with personal guidance, students graduating from high school would not be confronted with a cold and hostile business world, a world which they know very little about, a world which to them seems strange. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you very much. We want to hear from Douglas Williams and Al Chavies. You see we couldn't really get through with this program unless we had a bit of philosophy in it, and we have here a bit of a philosopher, his point of view is very interesting—Doug Williams. (Douglas R. Williams graduated from high school.)

DOUGLAS WILLIAMS: Mr. Hatch, ladies and gentlemen, I am not a "bit" of a philosopher, you can see that from the size of me. The professor neglected to tell you that I have done everything from bootleg coal (if there are any here from Pennsylvania they will know what that is) to rabble rousing. And now, for the last three years (I graduated from high school in 1938) I have done everything from rabble rousing to bootlegging coal. Now, no academic course in the world could prepare you for that, and that is what I took in high school.

But I don't know how I happened to get the English teacher, Miss Alice Woodward, that I had for the first two years. She was a very remarkable woman, and I say that kindly. She gave me something that I could not express in words, until lately. I could not quite grasp it, but it was there. It was deep in my mind. Looking over some books (I am somewhat of a book buyer and collector) I came across a statement by a Frenchman, that adventure is an inconvenience rightly considered; and an inconvenience, an adventure wrongly considered. That alone was worth my going to high school. It was worth what it cost the taxpayers to keep me there for four years. It has made me a better citizen.

I would like to close simply by saying that I would like to quote Dean Inge. Dean Inge has said that the soul is colored by its innermost thoughts—those were my innermost thoughts—they weren't exactly thoughts, it was just a feeling. In the last three years it has made me a liberal, a sort of humanitarian, and a sort of fourth-rate book collector. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Thank you very much.

Al Chavies, ladies and gentlemen. (Albert Chavies graduated from high school and is now a shipping clerk.)

AL CHAVIES: Thank you, Professor Hatch.

Visiting friends, I am glad to be able to contribute my share to this successful convention. Last June I graduated from a school that is rated as one of the best of its kind in these United States. I chose to take the commercial course because I felt that my race could stand some more good businessmen, and that it would aid to the success of our race in the future.

After graduation I set out to seek employment with this good commercial background that I had received, and finally I landed an interview, with my former employer. I walked into the office that morning about nine o'clock. I was directed to his office. The first question he asked me was, "Mr. Chavies (he addressed me as Mr. and I felt pretty good then), what can you do?"

"Well," I said (I needed the job awful badly): "I can do most anything."

He looked at me as if to say, "That's a pretty tall order, my son."

He asked me various questions—could I do this or could I do that or had I ever worked in a shipping department?

On that question I said, "Yes," and on that "Yes" I held my breath, because I was expecting him to ask me next where I had received my experience along these lines. I finally got the job. Although the job lasted only a short while. I feel that this untruth could have been spared me had I had the right instructions as to how to go about getting employment in my school days.

I was better equipped, I feel, and my previous employer felt, than my fellow-employees, along the commercial line, but they had better practical knowledge than I did. In the forenoon they received academic training in school along with the commercial training. The school would secure positions for them to apply their academic work part-time during the afternoon. Naturally, they were better off than I was to cope with certain situations that I had to face in business. In closing, I wish to say that I did secure a good commercial foundation in high school, but I wish that we had a full-time instructor, a vocational counselor, whom we could consult as to what the realities of life are in the business world. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: Douglas Williams spoke of the fact that a teacher had given him something that had been of service all down the years—a philosophy—and that is the big relationship of it all, is it not?

I am now going to ask Mr. Edward Landy to speak. Dr. Landy, as you know, many of you, has been making a survey of the high schools in this respect—Dr. Landy.

DR. EDWARD LANDY: Mr. Hatch, ladies and gentlemen. It seems to me as I listened that the kind of preparation which the schools were offering, in preparation for citizenship, was superior to that offered in preparation for occupational life. That may or may not be so. There was one thing—one point that must be emphasized, I think, and that is that the kind of evidence which was presented with respect to the occupational adjustment angle came from after-school periods while the kind of evidence which was presented with respect to the preparation for citizenship came from within-the-school types of machinery. I suspect that the in-school type of preparation for democracy actually is doing a better job than the occupational program is. I should like to see a kind of follow-up study with respect to whether these programs for citizenship actually work as well as they would seem to work upon an internal examination of them.

With respect to the occupational adjustment angle, I should say, speaking as Mr. Hatch said, as a specialist in occupational adjustment, that the general picture which the living documents have presented is true for youth about the country, at least for those who do not go on further with some kind of formal schooling after they leave high school. In connection with that it is interesting to note that the living documents stated that the

kind of experiences which they had in their NYA program seemed to them to be much better than that which they had had in high school. I should like to see a follow-up program of the NYA experiences, to see whether they are actually better off when they leave the NYA training program. It seems to me that as school people we ought to look very carefully into the kind of NYA program which makes for better and more successful occupational adjustment, and to transfer the elements that we can into the school program. That it seems to me was one of the most interesting points of the discussion. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN HATCH: I would like to stress in closing—the teacher-student relationship; the Mark Hopkins-on-the-log relationship. That is just about the finest thing in our profession. Every person here has been touched some time by that sacred touch.

I should like to close on this note today, turning to the great American poet, Walt Whitman, in his poem:

THOU MOTHER OF THE EQUAL BROOD  
Sail, Sail thy best, ship of Democracy,  
Of value is thy freight, 'Tis not the Present only,  
The Past is also stored in thee.  
With thee time voyages in trust,  
The antecedent nations rise and sink or  
swim with thee;  
Steer then with good strong hand and vary eye,  
O helmsman,  
For thou carriest great companions."

[Applause]

### Junior College Section

Wednesday, February 26, 2:15 p. m., Solarium, Haddon Hall

Topic: THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AND NATIONAL DEFENSE

E. R. Jobe, Member Executive Committee and State Supervisor of Secondary Schools, Jackson, Mississippi, presided at the meeting.

### The Responsibility of the Junior College in the Present Crisis

CONSTANCE WARREN

*President of Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, New York*

One day last summer Mr. Fosdick of the Rockefeller Foundation gave me a copy of Byron Hollinshead's report on Junior College Terminal Education<sup>1</sup> which had recently come to his desk. I took it away to the country with me and read it with great interest and appreciation. When I

<sup>1</sup>Hollinshead, B. S. Terminal General Education at the Junior College Level, *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, December, 1940, pp. 570-77, and Some Essentials of Terminal Occupational Education at the Junior-College Level, *School Review*, February, 1941, pp. 97-103.



was asked to speak to this Association I welcomed the opportunity because I felt it might be of interest to others to know how one college was actually putting into practice many of the methods of education which Dr. Hollinshead advocated as possible and desirable. It is the story of a junior college for women which started out with the determination to build its educational program around the interests, needs and abilities of the students without any regard to the problem of how those students could make the transfer to four-year colleges. It found that as soon as it had established a reputation for doing solid work under a scholarly faculty the four-year colleges put up with its unconventionality and accepted its students for transfer without any appreciable difficulty. Now and then a college emphasizing some pet requirement as essential to an educated woman insisted that the transfer student make up this requirement. It is interesting to note in passing that there is very little agreement among such colleges as to what this indispensable subject is. Also some students had in their first two years chosen courses which the college to which they transferred did not offer for credit, such as dramatics, publications, or philosophy studied in the freshman year.

In time we developed our own junior and senior years leading to the A. B. degree. Again we were faced with the problem: must we conform to the usual pattern to meet the requirements of the graduate school? Again we decided to meet our students' needs as squarely as possible and let the question of transfer take care of itself—and again we found that the graduate and professional schools were far more concerned about the quality of thinking and performance of the students we offered them than about the specific ground they had covered in their courses. Confidence in the clarity of the objectives of the college and in the quality of its teachers, not a listing of specific courses offered, seems to be the determining factor in the acceptance of students whom we recommend for transfer, either to the senior division or to the graduate school.

We also found that in adding our own last two years it was not at all necessary to change the type of work we were doing in the first two years. We have retained the junior college unit for which we give a diploma and which may be considered both as terminal and as a preparatory unit for the last two years without sacrifice of either objective. I agree with Dr. Hollinshead that the time is past when junior colleges need be under compulsion to justify their academic respectability by duplicating the first two years of the usual college program. They have long since proved that they can do this. It is time they undertook the far more difficult but more important task of re-examining these first two years in the light of what the students who come to them are interested to learn and *can* learn in the sense of really digesting and assimilating. This will differ with different groups, in differing localities and for differing individuals. It is a never-ending problem which, if honestly and seriously approached, may be guaranteed to keep any college from going to sleep on its feet.

The first two years of work as usually given in a four-year college is frankly not planned with regard to the student who comes to college to

learn but because it makes a logical pattern in terms of subject matter. The junior college all too often is but an echo of this plan. In a world teeming with information and experiences of many kinds which students know are vital for intelligent living, they are usually given, both in four-year and in junior colleges, a routine of freshman composition, mathematics and a foreign language, foundation work in a science the value of which is not made clear to them, and too often a chronological survey of historical facts and dates. They are supposedly laying foundations upon which to build a logical superstructure in some one field of major interest but little attention is given to making them see the relation of the facts they are learning to the important business of living. The result is that students find the junior college a rather deadly extension of secondary-school routine. If they continue in a four-year college, majors are often chosen at random or because one subject is easier than another. Education is thus a discipline without adventure or excitement when it should be a discipline because of them. The junior college will be one of the most important factors in education when it declares its independence and tries to find out what experiences really educate on the late adolescent level. Then its faculty will become acutely aware that what is educational meat for one student is poison for another; will begin to give less weight to "covering ground" in a subject and more to the selection of material which is of real significance to the student, which really trains him as a well-adjusted, effective citizen.

Sarah Lawrence College started out with such a declaration of independence, clung to it through the first years of criticism and ridicule, and has proved to its own satisfaction that the experiment is worth making. We feel every year more aware of the vast reaches of our ignorance, both of what materials and what methods are most valuable for various types and ages of students, but we feel increasingly determined to find out and to do everything we can to encourage other colleges to join us in this quest.

At this point it may be of interest to state some of our findings in more detail in terms of Dr. Hollinshead's recommendations, and in doing this I am discussing only a liberal arts program. We do little with specific vocational training.

#### A BROAD FLEXIBLE PROGRAM NEEDED

In the first place, we have never found a common ground of subject matter so essential for all students in their freshman year that it should be required of all. These may be the last two years of formal education which the student will ever have. We think she has a right to choose what she will study but with the advice of faculty who can help her to an understanding of what the college has to offer. Not every girl, therefore, studies English and if she does she is not launched into Chaucer at once. From such knowledge as we have of entering students and from such light as psychology throws on the learning process, we are led to believe that in literature, as in politics, history, economics, biology or any other field, the student should start at the point where she wants to learn—with contemporary novels or poetry if it is literature, with the last election if it is politics, with the present

war if it is European history, perhaps with chain stores versus the neighborhood grocer if it is economics, with the human body if it is biology.

We were convinced when we started, and we are much more so now, that it is the rare young person who is not eager to learn. Not all the things she wants to learn lie within the province of the college to teach but there should be a far greater range than many colleges are willing to admit. Authors do not have to be long dead to be worth reading. The student is right in wanting to learn to read, with critical judgment, the latest book of the month. Her reading does not necessarily have to stop there. Able teachers will stimulate in her a desire to know the authors whom our contemporary writers studied. Such teaching will look upon literature not as end in itself but as a means of obtaining, now an important esthetic experience, now insight into a specific culture, certain viewpoints, certain emotional and intellectual reactions, certain ethical principles. The student will not be made to feel that she must study the classics because she and the teacher well know that if she doesn't do so in the shadow of the college she never will. Classics will be read in connection with material which has no such established position but with a particular end in view and when the student is ready for them. Always in this, as in every other course, our objective is to train her to participate more effectively and more intelligently in the important business of living.

All freshmen are not expected to take a course in daily themes. Those who want to learn to write find a variety of opportunities under a variety of people. They may write verse with a poet, or plays which may be put to the acid test of a try-out on the college stage if they warrant it; they may study journalism under a professional who points out the best techniques for running the college paper; they may be told to watch the people at the next table in the restaurant, in Grand Central Station, in the department store elevator, for material for themes. They will surely be reading in a writing class and writing in a reading class. Their work will never be routine. For those who cannot write coherent English as needed for any course in college, special training has to be provided, generally by a teacher of English. We usually find that confusion in writing is tied up with confusion in thinking, that when the student begins to be able to arrange her thoughts logically her trouble with clarity of written expression clears up. No amount of daily themes is of much help until that happens. We must also realize that some intelligent people are non-verbal. They express themselves through music, painting or an intricate dissection under the microscope. We must beware of thinking that only the verbal person is intellectual, is worth educating. I talked not long ago to a distinguished college professor who told me that his daughter was pronounced by her school to be "non college material," so low were her marks in the usual program of preparatory-school studies. By some miracle she was accepted in one of the big universities where she majored in science with a straight A record and is now doing distinguished graduate work. In the first two years of college we should, if possible, provide a variety of media for ex-

pression sufficient to give our entering students a chance to find the one best fitted for him. Because we college professors are generally very verbal we must not assume that the written or spoken word is the only legitimate expression of thought.

Nor must we think that books are the only sources of information. Because the library is the focal point of the college we must not neglect the obligation to teach our students to observe and to learn through participation. A large proportion of junior colleges are located in cities and therefore have an unusual opportunity for field work. The neighborhood may and should be just as much a part of the college as the classroom. If we are to be effective citizens we must know our community and participate in its activities. To do this one should have intelligent training. Field trips we find to be valuable in proportion as we first prepare the student carefully for them so that she knows for what to look, and later as they are carefully discussed and evaluated. A visit to the Stock Exchange amounts to little but a passing show unless one has already studied enough about investments to know what is going on there; a trip to a factory may be simply a pleasant change from the economics recitation or it may be an opportunity to check up on methods of production and factory organization which the student has studied about and is eager to see in practice. In addition to field trips, it is not only possible but very desirable during these first years of college to provide as many opportunities as possible for field work carefully planned on a systematic basis of a certain number of hours a week, supervised and integrated with the student's academic work. In many cases this makes a real contribution to the neighborhood, as when our students have made surveys of congested housing conditions in neighboring cities as a basis for slum clearance projects, when after the low-cost housing unit was built our students helped make the selection of families to live in it, or when they made a study for the state of working conditions in Westchester County.

#### MAKING THE PROGRAM VITAL

A group is now making a survey of the previous training and work experience of unemployed in a neighboring city. In preparation for such work students must read widely and be carefully trained in the techniques of the particular investigation which they are undertaking. They must have statistical training to make a valuable report, and if the teachers guiding this experience are alive to its implications they will find that it is throwing light not only on economics but also on psychological, political, and perhaps anthropological material. Beginning students generally do better field work when working in groups but from the first some students of science may undertake to work singly in laboratories, clinics or natural history museums; students of child psychology in day nurseries or nursery schools; students of economics and sociology in social service centers. In most cities a wide variety of apprentice opportunities may open up for students taking vocational courses which, if properly checked and integrated with the college work, are of the utmost value. I want to emphasize this "if" because as soon as

it becomes known that a college wishes to give its students practical experience many employers and charitable organizations look upon it as a place to tap for volunteer work of a most routine kind. Teachers must be on the alert to see that their students are not just set to work stamping envelopes or that they are not kept at one job long after it has ceased to have any educational significance for them.

The junior college can well take the lead in examining the educational value of the arts; not just learning about them but also the practice of them, not just as an esthetic experience but for their intellectual value if well taught and for the emotional satisfactions which they carry with them. In many four-year colleges the practice of the arts—visual, musical, dramatic, and the dance—is a late development and regarded with some suspicion by the more academic members of the faculty as breaking down scholarly standards. The junior colleges have no such tradition. They can well introduce the arts on the ground floor as a valid part of college experience for those who want them and so arrange the schedule that the students have ample time for their practice. It is our experience that many a student has made real strides in academic achievement when she began to see her way clearly to the accomplishment she sought in one of the arts. These studies are also very valuable as the basis for many vocations such as interior decoration, dress, textile and stage design, radio broadcasting, *et cetera*. It is only a few days since a wall-paper manufacturer pointed out to me that a wall-paper designer who had had basic artistic training had a great advantage over one who had simply studied design commercially.

It is also our experience that science, if it is presented as a vital part of living, is well patronized on an elective basis. Students of biology are seldom drawn to that field because of a passion to know more about the amoeba but if they may start with a satisfaction of their natural desire to know more about their bodies the time will come when an interest awakens in the evolution of human life and they track down the amoeba with zest. We asked ourselves: What are the most important experiences for a first-year student to get from the study of science? After much trial and error we have come to the conclusion that it should include the experience of posing a scientific problem and finding out how to solve it, some indication of the function of that science in the modern world, some indication of its relation with other sciences and some of the basic principles upon which this science rests. We find, for instance, that one can well begin chemistry with the study of milk, working out techniques for the analysis of its ingredients which happen to be most important ones for the student to become familiar with; the study of the danger of contamination and how this can be prevented, which introduces the student to the field of biology; the digestion of milk which makes her aware of relations between chemistry and physics and between chemistry and physiology. She may also look into the uses of milk in the manufacture of plastics which opens up the role of chemistry in modern industry. Physics may start with household appliances, automobiles or photography; it may in time penetrate into the study of light-

ing for the stage, of sound production in the music studios, of balance in the dance. Because the sciences begin at the point where the student can easily make connections does not mean that basic facts or technical discipline are slighted. Nor do students have difficulty in progressing to advanced work and to graduate schools of science or medicine. In fact, we have had several who as undergraduates have carried on independent research of some significance because the emphasis from the first has been upon the thoughtful examination of scientific problems. To eliminate science as a requirement forces the faculty to make the scientific experience so valuable and convincing that students will elect it. And they will.

We have not considered mathematics or modern languages essential college experiences for all students. Those who have found mathematics a nightmare in school may avoid it in college but they frequently run up against the necessity for further work in that field in connection with chemistry, physics or statistics. When that time comes we turn them over to a teacher of mathematics, not for a year of preparatory work but for just as much as is necessary for the specific field of study in which it is required. The student has now asked for the mathematics she formerly rejected and generally acquires a knowledge of it with great rapidity. We discourage a modern language as a symbol of "culture;" we encourage it for those who have real linguistic interest or a practical reason for taking it. Again when the student needs it in connection with other work she generally learns it with amazing rapidity. For science students, for instance, a reading knowledge only is important; for voice students a speaking knowledge should be emphasized; for others the philological meaning is significant; for still others the light it throws upon a foreign culture is valuable. We try to approach language teaching from these various points of view and do not expect a general study of French or German to meet all needs or a uniform response.

No subject is more universally desired by beginning students than psychology. Almost everyone wants to understand herself and other people better and turns to psychology for enlightenment. If the course starts out with basic definitions and theory, with a study of memory, perception, *et cetera*, in the abstract, or with the physiology of the nervous system or animal psychology, many a student feels thwarted. If she may bring real problems to class, use case material, novels, plays, her own autobiography, the study of children in the nursery school or in her own family, this study has real value for the student from the beginning of her course. Work in the biology laboratory in connection with her psychology may follow when she is ready for it and in time she may reach the point where psychology as a science interests her and she elects work in laboratory psychology. On the other hand, her interest in the subject may cease when she has obtained some insight into particular problems which were troubling her. A democracy depends for its efficiency upon citizens who are well adjusted and understanding of other people. To help them to develop these qualities is just as much the obligation of an educational institution as to help them to



learn how government works, how business is conducted or what are the problems of immigrants to this country.

THE STUDENT'S PROGRAM CUTS ACROSS SUBJECT FIELDS

These two years are the golden opportunity to show the student the close relation between fields of subject matter which up to that time have been too often neatly packaged. If "a little learning is a dangerous thing" so also is the assumption that we know the answers from an intensive but one-sided study of a complex problem. This is the time to study foreign trade, for instance, not merely as the concern of an economics class but as involving geographic, racial and social factors; to tie up work in economics and in dramatics with a study of Actor's Equity or of labor plays; to bring history, anthropology, psychology and sociology, as well as ethics or philosophy, to bear upon the study of the Old Testament. Breaking down the barriers between courses of study is as rewarding as it is difficult for those of us who were trained to specialize narrowly in graduate school. It turns us as teachers into students, opens up to us new vistas of rewarding research, brings us in closer touch with our colleagues in other fields through inviting them to speak to our classes, planning joint courses with them, sending students to consult them.

We find ourselves discarding textbooks for a wider variety of reference reading, encouraging our students to independent study, asking for fewer class periods but each sufficiently long for the kind of free discussion which develops and pushes out the formal lecture and the equally formal recitation. Students become more concerned with the choice of their studies and soon assume far more responsibility for their own education than we would have once thought possible. We see as we never saw before how eager youth is to learn once it is convinced of the value of the education offered.

You may be wondering where the time is to be found for learning to know the student, to undertake so much wider a range of study in your field and to link the classroom with the community. One important way in which we have made an economy is by cutting down the work of each student to three courses a year, thereby freeing her time and the teacher's time for more intense study in each field and for more conferences between the teacher and the student. We find that students expect college to be a definite break from the secondary school. They are looking for a more mature approach to work and welcome it. The additional time freed for field, studio and laboratory work or for co-ordination with work in other fields makes each subject of far greater significance than they had at first expected and opens up areas far beyond their original horizons.

Faculty who are thinking of education in terms of the student rather than in terms of well-organized bodies of information to be passed on intact to the next generation will soon find themselves concerned that these young people become aware of the important factors in our daily living—national, regional and racial differences and similarities, problems of employer and employee, of government in actual practice, of health and



housing, of the historical background necessary to obtain perspective in these factors. They cease to be satisfied that they have discharged their obligation to fit students for democracy by requiring of them courses in citizenship. Thoughtful teachers realize that if education for democracy is to be effective it must permeate every part of the teaching program and every part of the program of living on the campus. The college must be a co-operative working unit, always on the alert for better ways to share responsibilities.

The totalitarian states will continue to streamline and regiment education in the interest of obedience and uniformity. This is a cheap and easy method of education and it will always be a temptation to many institutions to step back into it because of the quick returns in passive obedience on the part of commonplace students ready to do routine work in a routine way. This is the kind of training which dictators are looking for in their subjects. In a democracy each educational unit is charged with the responsibility of so planning its education that it will enable its students to become mature, responsible citizens, preserving their individuality while developing social responsibility. I am convinced that the approach which I have indicated leads in this direction. It is not a cheap and easy method of education. It is expensive in time and thought and imagination but it is the direction which education must take if it is to train citizens prepared to think clearly and independently and to assume their share of responsibility for an effective, co-operative life.

## The Part of the Terminal Junior College in Meeting Youth Needs

HARL R. DOUGLASS

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The basic needs of youth today are in general what they have always been. Indeed, they are quite similar to those basic needs of adults. Yet the more pressing, and different in outline and detail. Among the general needs of youth which we should consider in connection with a program of the education and care of youth are the following:

1. To find a satisfying place among his fellow youth and enjoy friendship and respect of his peers—to appear well, to be welcome, to rank well in qualities important to young people.
2. To experience personal achievement—to find things to do which he can do well, to be able to find self-expression in doing along some lines in a manner not below average.
3. To enter into and succeed in vocational life—to find employment which gives him assurance that he has made the grade into the principal area of adult responsibilities and activities.
4. To be able to establish an independent and happy home—to have a mate, a companion, who is congenial and otherwise desirable.
5. To participate in enjoyable recreational activities of a type generally desired by his fellow youth.

6. To maintain health and physical efficiency.
7. To understand life and its complexes and riddles—religious, political, sexual, and otherwise.
8. To be of normal mind and attractive personality—to avoid being queer, dumb, or unattractive in personality.
9. To avoid domination by older people—parents, teachers, and others.

Conversely and briefly youth fears non-acceptance socially by his fellow youth; inability to succeed economically; inferiority in abilities and personality; domestic loneliness; and lack of opportunity for self-expression. Certain social changes and developments have taken place to accentuate these needs and aggravate and intensify those fears. Social and economic life today is not nearly as well adjusted to the needs of youth as formerly. We may well note briefly, some of the more important social trends and their contributions to maladjustment:

1. Unemployment—a growing national problem as the result of advance in technology and the lack of economic planning. Re-adjustment has affected youth more adversely than any other group. Unemployment in youth delays marriage, causes him to doubt self and social justice and to doubt America which he has been taught to regard as the land of equality of opportunity, renders impossible his participation in prevailing social life except as subsidized by his parents and causes him to go on attending school and college after his appetite for intellectual training has been saturated. I wish that all of you might read Edward Mason's article in the October 1940, *Kiwanian*, under the title "Where Does a Young Fellow Go Next."
2. Changes in customs and standards of social and recreational life and its consequent higher cost—this has been the result of the increased use of the automobile, and the increased tendency to attend commercialized amusement such as movies, dances, and eating places.
3. Changes in customs and standards of dress and personal decoration with their resulting mounting costs for good appearance caused by the increased cost of cosmetics, the commercial care of the hair, and the higher standards of clothing and the increased cost of the wardrobe.
4. The constant presentation of youth through the movies and through the social activities of their elders, to an atmosphere certain to stimulate desire and emulation by them of the artificial power and prestige that money brings and the artificial and sophisticated ways of life.
5. The increasing maladjustment between expectations in life and probability of achievement as the result of the increased number of young people going through and beyond the secondary school in the expectation of entering the professions and the upper economic groups (never more than ten per cent of the population) and the rapidly diminishing frontiers of land and of industrial development.

All of these changes, trends and many others to lesser degrees operate to create and to intensify the problems of youth in meeting their peculiar needs.

#### CONTRIBUTION OF EDUCATION TO BETTER ADJUSTMENTS

In thinking of meeting the needs of youth we should keep in mind two kinds of approaches, one that has in mind doing something for the needs of the youth of today and the other that looks toward the improvement of the situation for the youth of the next decade and future decades.

One must also bear in mind the need for doing things for youth as individuals as well as for youth collectively.

For example, we must look toward preparing young people so that they may work out plans of economic life which will reduce the number of unemployed as well as toward preparing young people to succeed in competition for jobs. We must also help individuals in our schools to solve other individual problems that result from frustrated desires to work, to appear well, to solve the riddle of sex, or to become more welcome among their fellows as well as to help all to be more attractive, more vocationally efficient or more socially intelligent.

It seems certain to many of us that the continuation of youth in school and college will not provide a very effective solution to these problems. In fact, some of these problems are aggravated by continuation in a school of the conventional type where social distinctions prevail, where wide standards of dress and appearance are common, where the conventional academic curriculum obtains, where self-expression may be achieved only by a few of the more academically minded and where individual guidance is lacking. Those who saw in the unemployment of young people a chance to retain them in school two or three years longer either made a very poor snap judgment or they were exceptionally optimistic with respect to the probabilities that the schools and the junior colleges would develop appropriate programs for these people.

Twenty years ago when we were exhorting educators and taxpayers to extend local school systems through another two years, we were confidently expecting that terminal curriculums would be developed to take care of the needs of a million or more graduates of the secondary schools who should and could not attend a four-year college or university. Koos, Proctor, and other outstanding national leaders in the junior-college movement in the twenties mentioned scores of occupations to the preparation for which junior-college education was particularly suited—occupations for which secondary-school education was not sufficient or the age and types of secondary-school students were inappropriate and yet for which more than two years of college or university education was not necessary.

The early advocates of junior colleges were keenly disappointed with the turns the junior-college movement took, particularly the failure to provide terminal education and the disheartening tendency for junior-college staffs to mimic the lower division of the universities, to strut themselves as college instructors, deans and presidents, and to seek refuge in an artificial academic respectability from the impending demand for ingenuity, vision, and courage to establish a new type of education institution. We were disappointed with the tendency of junior colleges to succumb with a disappointingly feeble struggle (in some instances almost an eager struggle) to the traditional tendency of college and university faculties to impose from their ivy towers and delusions of grandeur their nineteenth century philosophies of education.

Then came the depression, the American Youth Commission, the NYA, and the CCC. The thirties have seen junior-college staffs really attack their major problem—terminal education and guidance. The movement is well under way. It threatens to become a stampede. The realistic friends of youth are encouraged. Even though here and there, some junior-college dean, a "professor" becoming suddenly self-conscious or enthusiastic, trips on his academic robes as he hastens to join the parade, the net result is gratifying.

Early in January I sent out to one hundred junior colleges a request for some information about what they were doing in the direction of terminal education. My office has been deluged with letters, catalogues, and mimeographed materials. While some of those who replied apologized for their slowness, and a few disclaimed responsibilities for terminal education, the majority were brazen hussies, boasting of their terminal programs and promising still further developments.

This trend is none too soon—it is overdue. We have known from the beginning that the majority of junior-college students would never enter another institution. Yet we offered few terminal courses and little encouragement to students to take those we offered. Webb in 1933 showed that even in California only thirty-five per cent of those entering junior colleges ever transferred to another institution. Eells in 1936 reported that of approximately seven thousand junior-college students studied, less than two thousand entered higher institutions of learning and almost half of those didn't remain to finish. More recent studies in Chicago indicate that only one in four junior-college students ever asked for a transcript.

In spite of the fact that apparently only about one in four junior-college students goes on to a four-year college or university, approximately three in four are enrolled in college preparatory curriculums. This illogical condition is attributable in large part to three causes, (1) the lack of terminal curriculum in many junior colleges especially the smaller ones, (2) the failure to develop an effective program of guidance and education aimed at encouraging students to consider terminal and vocational curriculums more favorably, and (3) the reluctance of parents and students to give up the desire to crowd into college and into the professions, apparently not realizing that happiness may be found in satisfaction with the middle levels of occupational pursuits.

#### CURRICULUM TRENDS

Yet the reports from junior colleges of 1940-41 are amazing in the degree of progress they reveal. Courses and curriculums have been developed in more than two hundred occupational fields as aviation construction, radio operation and repair, mechanical specialists, news reporters, medical and dental assistants and secretaries, nursing, real-estate and insurance, surveyors, watchmakers, agriculture and forestry, chemical technicians, banking, advertising and other types of soliciting, nursery and landscape gardening, construction, contracting, photography, cosmetology,

police work, electrical assistants, commercial art, commercial music, store management, hotel and restaurant management, library clerical work, welding, and blue-print making and reading.

Cause for rejoicing does not stop here. Time will permit me merely to mention a few other encouraging examples or trends.

1. Many, notably the Weber Junior College at Ogden, Utah, have developed a clear cut and indigenous faculty philosophy with respect to terminal education. The Weber philosophy includes two most sound statements; (1) our first obligation is to enlighten citizenry and (2) we recognize four groups whom we should serve. Curriculums have been provided for (1) senior college groups (1 in 4 at Weber), (2) vocational groups (semi-professional and trades), (3) terminal general education group, and (4) adult and short term groups.
2. The tendency to correlate vocational terminal curriculums to local occupational opportunities. Examples of this tendency are seen in Lassen Junior College, (Calif.)—Lumbering, in co-operation with NYA project; Taft Junior College (Calif.)—Oil machinery, its operation, upkeep, and repair; Los Angeles and San Diego Junior Colleges—aeronautics; Lasell Junior College—merchandising in connection with Boston stores; Placer Junior College (Calif.)—mining; and Rochester (Minn.) and La Plume (Pa.) Junior Colleges—medical secretaries.
3. The tendency to make the junior college a community college giving adults a broad program of education in appropriate fields at convenient hours.
4. The increasing practice of giving intensive short-term courses and refresher courses to unemployed youth and adults.
5. The growing tendency to develop "Co-operative Distributed Occupations" or "Part-time" plans in which students spend approximately half time on the job learning and half time in school in pursuit of related background studies and of general education, leisure, health and civic studies. Some of these operate in a number of occupations, some concentrate upon one as at Goddard, Vermont, where journalism is studied in connection with near-by newspaper offices.

There are certain other considerations and trends which I believe are noteworthy and sound. The following are a few examples:

1. Many schools are offering either in addition to or instead of intensive training for a specific job, a more general vocational education basis to a number of vocational occupations, as for example, forge work, machine tooling, accounting, blue-print work, practical mechanics, salesmanship, and retail store management.
2. Many schools are offering re-organized courses in science, mathematics and English, especially adapted to vocational needs. For example, English is focused upon the ability to write letters and reports and the ability to express one's self orally in vocational matters such as the mathematics of business, of shop and of agriculture.
3. Many schools are wisely insisting that for the terminal student, training for health, home consumer-education, leisure and intelligent citizenship are as important as vocational education—even more important for some.

The developments of vocational terminal courses is almost certain to continue. In California, as Harbeson of the Pasadena Junior College points out, much vocational work formerly offered in the secondary school

has been transferred to the junior college. Several supporting arguments and reasons may be advanced for this tendency:

1. The employment of youth under the age of twenty is confined largely to occupations for which specific education is not essential.
2. Youths of eighteen and nineteen years of age seem to profit more from vocational education than when younger.
3. Youths of seventeen and eighteen years of age can with more assurance select an appropriate vocation.

Personally, I welcome this tendency. It will release more time in the secondary school for continued training in science, history, mathematics, and English and the social studies and for all the objectives of secondary education including the vocational objective.

#### GUIDANCE IS ESSENTIAL

The adjustment of junior-college education to the needs of youth is not entirely a matter of curriculum adjustment. Many of the problems that confront youth, especially those more likely to be enrolled in terminal curriculums, may be approached best through guidance—through conference, discussion, and advice. Especially is this true in problems of personal relationships, of social adjustments, of abnormal or unnecessary fears and the like. Group guidance also is of great value, particularly in the form of group discussions of such problems as social, and occupational adjustments and problems of the young couple getting safely started on their way in establishing an effective home.

If the needs of American youth are met and if preparation for the defense of American democracy is to be most sound, two other extensions of the junior-college idea should be implemented. These are:

1. There should be available to rural youth of the ages of eighteen through the twenties an educational program especially suited to their needs—their vocational needs, agriculture and agricultural economies particularly and equally important their needs for continued education along the lines of home-membership citizenship, health and recreation. These institutions might well be season schools in operation in seasons when work is light.
2. Care should be taken to keep the costs of junior-college education at a minimum. The costs of higher education—tuition, fees and board and room—have more than doubled in the United States in the last quarter century. Herbert Hoover in his inaugural address said, "Many nations have wrecked themselves on the fallacy of depending for its leadership upon a restricted class of its people." We should frown upon the tendency to make junior colleges to a considerable part self-supporting. Our ideal should be a junior college free and open at nominal cost to every youth in the land.

-This brings me to the consideration of my last point; namely, to what extent should the junior college maintain contact with its students after they are no longer regularly enrolled. Over a period of years it has been my growing conviction that the local school system should follow its pupils into life—giving aid until they are safely adjusted occupationally and on their way to successful occupational careers and domestic lives. I can see no good reason for our "all or none" traditional policy which implies that

when a student ceases to be a regular enrollee, the school has finished its job. The school should keep up contact with its proteges. In this respect, avenues that are available include part-time continuation education; continued recreational program for out-of-school youth in the community in the form of sports, games, dancing, play production, and forums; continued health examinations and immunizations; continued counsel and guidance growing incidentally out of continued contact; and continued vocational guidance, placement, and informal vocational education.

#### TEACHING, A PROFESSION

If present trends continue, teaching school will cease to be an occupation for Ichabod Crane and "school-marms" content with conducting academic classroom exercises. It is coming to afford a most hearty challenge to men who desire to see their work actually count for something definite in influencing and improving human lives. We will no longer have to content ourselves with vague and unconvincing platitudes about the value of an "education" and how we "mold" the future generation. That word "mold" has never satisfied me. I seem to think of making a generation moldy with an outmoded curriculum—one which looks back rather than forward, one supported by rotted fibers of a discarded psychology.

In the modern junior college, one is not forced to content himself with the hopes that the few who go on to college will justify his efforts and that somehow the curriculum for those will also serve the needs of those who go no further. He can find himself daily engaged in a work about the value of which he need have no doubts. He need not wait for decades to see its results. He may find satisfaction in immediate results in his own community on every hand, in the sight of young men and women, around him happily working, enjoying America in the way we idealize—building good American homes of the type of which we like to think.



## National Council of the National Honor Society

Minutes of the meeting of the National Council of the National Honor Society at Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 23, 1941, at 4:30 p. m., at Haddon Hall, Room E.

Present: Members Allen, Brooks, Dickey, Elicker, Nelson, and Church.  
Absent: Members Amland, Comstock, Rehms, and Spencer.

Section 5, Article II, of the national constitution was discussed. Motion by member Elicker that Section 5 be amended to read as follows:

*The National Council shall each year nominate three or more and the Executive Committee shall make final election.* The motion carried.

Since the terms of the following members expired at this time: Members Amland, Brooks, Comstock—nominations were made and the following were elected by the Executive Committee:

L. W. BROOKS, Principal Wichita High School, East Wichita, Kansas

M. O. CARROTHERS, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Headmaster, Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Conn.

Member Dickey moved, with second by member Brooks, that the *Revolving Scholarship Loan Fund* for the present fiscal year be maintained with a ceiling of \$23,000. The motion carried.

H. V. CHURCH, *Secretary*

## *News Notes*

**EVALUATING THE N. Y. A. PROGRAM**—More than a year ago a group of N. Y. A. administrators in the state of New Hampshire expressed an interest in an evaluation study of the student aid program of the N. Y. A. as applied to the schools and colleges in their state. Studies had been made in some of the schools and colleges and isolated educational units in other states, but in no state had there been an attempt to evaluate the whole program, covering all the colleges and secondary schools participating in the N. Y. A. program. It was the belief of this group that the size of the state of New Hampshire, the distribution between rural and urban communities, and the number of participants in the program would afford an excellent opportunity to study the functioning of the program from the point of view of students, supervisors, and administrators on a state-wide basis.

As a result of the interest shown, the state director for New Hampshire called a meeting in Concord in January, 1940, for the purpose of considering the initiation of plans to carry on an evaluation study. A rather extensive study was planned. This was carried on under the direction of an N. Y. A. evaluation study committee independent of N. Y. A. authority, responsibility or influence.

The study attempted to find answers to the following questions:

1. What function is the N. Y. A. student work program fulfilling for the high school and college student workers in the state of New Hampshire?
2. What functions do the high school and college student workers think that the N. Y. A. program has fulfilled for them?
3. What functions may the N. Y. A. program fulfill for these student workers which from their point of view it is not now fulfilling?
4. What function is the program fulfilling for the student workers from the point of view of the high school and college staff members who act as supervisors of the student projects?
5. What functions may it fulfill for these student workers from the point of view of the high school and college supervisors which it has not yet fulfilled?
6. What are the jobs being done by the high school and college workers?
7. What are the high school and college student workers' attitudes toward the N. Y. A. work experience which they have had?
8. What are the student workers' attitudes toward their supervisors?
9. What are the student workers' attitudes toward the N. Y. A. program as a work program?

To obtain answers to these questions, questionnaires were utilized. These were sent to every secondary school and college N. Y. A. student worker and to every secondary school and college N. Y. A. work supervisor. Five hundred seventy-one responses were received from youth in secondary schools and the payroll figures for February, 1940, showed that 623 youth were employed on N. Y. A. in secondary schools during that month. In other words, about 92% of the secondary-school workers responded. Figures available through the State Board of Education indicated that about two and one half per cent of the high school youth were receiving N. Y. A. aid at the time the study was made.

Five hundred twenty-four questionnaires were answered by college youth and the March payroll figures indicated that there were 571 employed on N. Y. A. in colleges during the month that returns from the questionnaires were sent in, i. e., ninety-two per cent of the college workers replied.

The result of this study is reported in a recently published mimeographed 115-page bulletin entitled, "An Evaluation Study of the N.Y.A. Student Work Program in New Hampshire Schools and Colleges," and distributed by the State N. Y. A. office, Concord, New Hampshire.

**MOTION PICTURE RESEARCH**—Indiana University has been given a grant of \$1,000 for educational motion picture research by Coronet Productions, Inc. The results of this research will be used as a basis for planning and producing

educational motion pictures for classroom use. The research will be supervised by staff members of Indiana University. Its purpose under the terms of the grant is to analyze the curriculum content of grades 1-12 in order to determine those topics for which motion pictures may provide a more adequate experimental background for classroom instruction. The project is conducted and is to be administered by a committee of professors in the University's School of Education of which H. L. Smith is dean.

University professors will begin work immediately on four studies in order to develop plans for a systematic program of educational film production. One in the elementary grade is designed to identify topics included in grades 1-6 which may be presented successfully by educational motion pictures. A second is a project in the Social Studies area for the purpose of ascertaining which social science situations are taught most often in grades 7-12 inclusive. The third is a study in which it is planned to determine the basic understandings and skills that are considered most important in the field of business education. The fourth is a study designed to identify, within the areas of group games, folk dancing and fundamental rhythms, the activities which are most frequently used in each grade of the elementary and secondary schools.

**NINTH-GRADERS STATE PROBLEMS AND AMBITIONS**—The December, 1940, issue of *Better Teaching*, a monthly publication of the Cincinnati Public Schools, reports that tabulations of questionnaires filled out by approximately one thousand one hundred ninth-grade pupils in the Cincinnati schools show that the quality most admired in others by these pupils is honesty. Unselfishness, good manners, and conversational abilities came next in the pupils' ratings of desired qualities.

Ninety-eight per cent of the pupils were convinced that education will help them to a greater enjoyment of life. While eighty-eight per cent of the pupils think they get the grades they deserve, the remaining twelve per cent were about equally divided among those who think they receive higher, and those who think they receive lower grades than they deserve.

School success, boy and girl relationships, and educational guidance seemed to be the main areas in which these ninth-grade pupils' problems were found. They were also concerned about their choice of vocations and remedying their personal inadequacies. Responses to a question as to their greatest wishes indicated the pupils were most concerned about solving their personal problems and securing personal success. Desire for the solution of family difficulties and of social and world problems was also expressed by many. The pupils stated that when in trouble, they generally went to their parents, and four out of five went to the mother in preference to the father.

Thirty-eight per cent of these pupils did not like high school during the first week; eighteen per cent still did not like it after one semester; and nearly nineteen per cent liked elementary school better than high school. The dislike for high school is perhaps explained by their reaction to the question, "What bothered you most when you first entered the ninth grade?" The new school routine was listed by thirty-five per cent; the difficulty of school subjects by twenty-two per cent; fear of school failure by fourteen per cent; and difficulty of social adjustment to the new school by sixteen per cent. Thus, eighty-seven per cent of the pupils were disturbed by difficulties which may be caused by lack of orientation to the new school.

**SECONDARY TEACHER CERTIFICATION**—The *News of the Week*, a publication of the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction, states:

"Tabulations covering academic high school certificates show that Arizona, California, and Washington require five years of college training on the part of the new high school teacher. Oregon requires some advanced training and will soon reach the five-year standard. New York will require five years by 1943. Nearly all other states require the degree as the basic scholastic requirement for the high school certificate. Georgia and Oklahoma issue a certificate

after three years of advanced training. Illinois issues a high school certificate upon two years of advanced training with examination; this certificate legally is good for teaching in a four-year high school, although accrediting requirements generally bar such use. Two states, Mississippi and Texas, grant the high school certificate upon two years of advanced training. Six states have higher Directed Teaching requirements than a minimum of five semester hours; seven states appear to have requirements equal to five semester hours; and twenty-nine states apparently have requirements in Directed Teaching which are lower than a five semester hour minimum requirement. Data are not available for twelve of these states. One state has higher requirements in Education than twenty semester hours; three states have a twenty semester hour requirement; and forty-four states have requirements in Education which are less than twenty hours. Data are not available for two of these states. Only two states grant secondary "blanket" life certificates.

EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC WELL-BEING—"Education does not cost one tenth as much as the ignorance which it tends to correct is now costing. Idleness in America, which is caused by economic and political ignorance, has cost twenty billion dollars a year now for ten years. Inefficient management of our industrial and agricultural plants, plus general ignorance of economic and political principles relating to distribution, has cost and is costing in restricted production, from twenty to forty billion more a year, even in good years. Crime, which is largely the result, directly or indirectly, of ignorance, costs another fifteen billion a year; sickness and lowered vitality, war, stupid eating and drinking habits, and other effects of ignorance cost billions more each year. On the other hand, an entire educational system from kindergarten through the grade school costs only two and one half billions a year. Our experience during the past fifty years shows that increased efficiency because of education pays ten times the cost of the education which produces the efficiency," so states A. Caswell Ellis.

AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION—The Educational Radio Script Exchange of the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C., has recently issued a free mimeographed bulletin entitled, *Radio and National Defense*. This is a list of the numerous radio scripts and recordings of radio programs that have been given during the past several years on such topics as the origins of Americans, civil liberties, democracy, Pan-Americanism and historical episodes.

THE EVALUATION OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS—Leo J. Brueckner, University of Minnesota, in the February, 1941, issue of *The National Elementary Principal*, states: "The most feasible way in which to determine the effectiveness of an educational program is to study the changes in its product that are revealed by a careful appraisal at several successive points in the program. This evaluation may be made by means of any device or procedure that will yield dependable information on the basis of which to determine from time to time the differences in the behavior of the individual or group in the affairs of life with respect to the specific objective or series of objectives being considered. An analysis of the facts gathered by means of various appropriate procedures will afford a fairly dependable basis for evaluating the educational program in terms of the results it produces. In so far as there are strengths revealed, we judge the program to be satisfactory. When weaknesses are discovered, the school will find it necessary to undertake steps to determine the causes of the unfavorable development and to devise measures to remedy the condition.

"The approach to evaluation through a study of the educational product is a much more dependable one than a plan based on an appraisal of the procedures and processes of the educational program as such. Numerous check lists of approved school practices have been developed and then used as a basis of appraisal. A school is rated as "excellent" if it follows many of these practices in the check list that are rated as valuable, such as, providing a well-rounded professional library for the staff, maintaining a rich program of co-

curricular activities to supplement the curriculum, using exhibits of various kinds to enrich children's concepts, and so on. However, the fact that such practices are used in a particular school is no guarantee that the results in terms of pupil growth that are supposed to accrue are actually being produced. Furthermore, some of the procedures included in such a list may not be appropriate in the situation or under the conditions that prevail there. It is also possible that the approved practices may be used without insight and with little skill. Consequently it is conceivable that the educational results being produced by a given program may be relatively unsatisfactory even though it appears from inspection that many of the approved practices included in the check list are being used. It therefore seems evident that a comprehensive periodic appraisal of the development of the pupils is a sounder basis than the use of check lists for evaluating an educational program."

He lists four well-defined steps in the development of procedures for evaluating the educational product. First, it is necessary to define as clearly and definitely as possible, the objectives that are to be achieved either by the educational program as a whole or by some phase of it, for example, instruction in reading or science. Second, valid test situations must be devised which will give the pupil the opportunity to respond normally and naturally in ways that will reveal the extent to which a particular objective is being achieved. Third, some sort of dependable reliable record of the responses of the individual must be obtained. Fourth, the record of behavior must be intelligently interpreted and evaluated.

**JUNIOR COLLEGES CONTINUE TO GROW IN SIZE AND NUMBER**—Continued rapid growth of the junior colleges is revealed by the *Junior College Directory, 1941*, published by the American Association of Junior Colleges, 730 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington, D. C. Enrollment in these institutions having doubled in the last six years, totaled 236,162 for the 1939-40 college year; in 1929 the enrollment totaled 54,438; and in 1935, 107,807. Increase for the last year is 20.5 per cent. The jump was from 196,710 in 1940, a growth of 39,452 for the year. This was almost equal to the 41,122 increment reported a year ago, which was the maximum ever reported.

The number of junior colleges is now 610, an addition of 35 for the year and an addition of 205 since 1929. The directory contains the names of 55 institutions which were not listed a year ago, but 20 others have been dropped on account of change of status of one sort or another. Fifteen institutions are listed as having started junior college work in 1939 or 1940. Average enrollment in 595 junior colleges for which figures are given is 397. There are 195 institutions with enrollments greater than 300, as compared with 164 of this size last year; 46 exceed 1,000, compared with 33 last year; and 18 exceed 2,000, as compared with 12 last year. Of the 18 largest, 12 are in California, three in Illinois, and one each in Texas, Wisconsin, and the National Capital.

California continues to lead both in number and size of its junior colleges. Texas is second in number, and Illinois is second in enrollment. Junior colleges are found in 44 of the 48 states, only Nevada, Wyoming, Rhode Island and Delaware being without them. The 10 states leading in the number of their junior colleges are California, 64; Texas, 43; Iowa, 36; Oklahoma, 30; North Carolina, 25; Kansas, 24; Illinois, 24; Pennsylvania, 24; Massachusetts, 23.

The 10 states leading in enrollment are California, 86,357; Illinois, 19,589; Texas, 15,085; Missouri, 8,143; North Carolina, 6,602; Massachusetts, 5,994; Kansas, 5,798; Georgia, 5,635; Oklahoma, 5,049; Mississippi, 5,205.

Forty-three per cent of the 610 junior colleges are publicly controlled, and they have 71 per cent of the enrollment. There are 168,228 students in 261 publicly controlled junior colleges, and 67,934 students in 349 privately controlled junior colleges. A more complete report of this will be found on pages 336-40 of the February 1941 issue of *The Junior College Journal*.

**REMEDIAL-READING PROGRAMS**—In the January, 1941, issue (pages 32-41) of *The School Review*, G. M. Blair reports a study of what secondary schools are doing to aid the unusually poor reader. He reports a number of procedures used by specific schools and summarizes the 397 replies received from 1,090 contacted schools. Of the schools replying, 198 provide special sections of English and classes in remedial reading, thirty-four give attention to the problem within the regular classes, seventy-five do nothing or very little about it, and twenty-eight provide specialists who coach individuals or small groups. The author concludes that "All teachers, regardless of what subject they teach, should assist their poor readers in developing better reading techniques. Teachers of regular classes in English should do all they can to bring about improvement in reading on the part of their pupils. Furthermore, special sections of English or remedial-reading classes should, no doubt, be organized when there are large numbers of pupils who need basic training in reading and who have no chance of surviving in the regular classes. In addition to this provision, it would be desirable to have available a reading specialist or a thoroughly trained clinical psychologist who could diagnose and give help to the most obstinate or complicated cases."

**DANGERS TO DEMOCRACY**—A new bibliography, as timely as it is excellent, has just been published by the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, under the title, *The Dangers to Democracy: What Can Be Done About Them*. Some 570 books, pamphlets and magazine articles are briefly annotated and arranged according to an outline which is in itself illuminating. The first section is given to "the dangers from without" and the second, considerably larger, is devoted to the "dangers from within." The bibliography is designed, among others, for teachers and group leaders interested in the topic. Single copies are available at twenty-five cents with special rates on quantity orders.

**A STUDY OF THE CAUSES OF DELINQUENCY**—The Committee on Delinquency of the Second Generation of Adults in America of the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association, has recently published a report in mimeographed form (61 pages) of their study in this field. This committee states, "For a thorough and adequate analysis, understanding and interpretation of the real causes of delinquency operating in the behavior of native-born children of foreign-born parents (commonly referred to as the "second generation"), we must give first attention to the social, cultural, and emotional conflicts and factors in their lives. This "second generation" group is most maladjusted to the present complicated American social environment, and, therefore, contributes to our penal population an appreciably larger number of youthful delinquents than the other three groups, viz. foreign-born children of foreign-born parents, native-born children of native-born parents, and native-born children of mixed parentage."

Some of the general causes of delinquency listed by this committee as operating in the behavior of all classes of youth are: inadequacies in home environment, inadequacies in social environment, inadequacies in the general legal judicial system, conflicts between the older and younger generation, family quarrels, increased urbanization, lack of education, low mentality, isolation of immigrants from good American environment, dramatization of crime in movies, prejudicial attitude of American society toward minority groups, frequent remissness of school teachers in their responsibilities to their pupils. All of these are further discussed in the report. The same report also presents numerous practical suggestions and recommendations on crime prevention in our day. It concludes by the statement that, "The best rules to follow in the campaign against youth delinquency are: approach tactfully, treat humanely, study thoroughly, interpret scientifically, plan constructively, criticize wisely, advise sanely, and serve ethically."



**NATURE CAMP FOR ADULT LEADERS**—The National Audubon Society will conduct the Audubon Camp for Adult Leaders for its sixth season during the summer of 1941. The Camp is located on a spruce covered island in Muscongus Bay, Maine, about sixty-five miles northeast of Portland. The Camp was established for the special purpose of providing teachers and youth leaders with practical programs for nature study, adapted to their individual needs, and to offer opportunity to observe living plants and animals in their natural environment. Young, experienced specialists conduct a program of field classes in birds, plants, insects, water life, and nature activities. Visits are made to a variety of habitats including evergreen forests, hardwood forests, salt water shores and marshes, fresh water ponds, meadows and outlying oceanic islands.

Campers may enroll for one or more of the following five two-week periods at a cost of fifty-one dollars for the period for each person: June 13 through June 26, June 27 through July 10, July 11 through July 24, August 1 through August 14, and August 15 through August 28. During the past five summers, 985 persons from 37 states and 4 Canadian provinces have spent 1,146 two-week enrollment periods at the Camp. The Camp is operated at cost. For additional information write: Camp Department, National Audubon Society, 1006 Fifth Avenue, New York City, New York.

**FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF PHYSICAL AND SOCIAL FITNESS**—On January 3, 1941, Congressman Schwert of New York introduced into the House of Representatives a bill to promote national preparedness and the national welfare through appropriation of funds to assist the several States and Territories in making adequate provision through schools for physical education, including athletics; instruction and guidance in healthful living; wider recreational use of school facilities; and the development of school camps. This is known as Bill H. R. 1074, a revision of Bill H. R. 10606. Copies of this bill can be secured through your Congressman or address, U. S. Capitol, Washington, D. C.

**TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES**—William H. Kilpatrick of Teachers College, Columbia University, in the Foreword to the book, *Parenthood in a Democracy*, by Bowman and Lighty, (Burstein and Chappe, 270 Lafayette Street, New York City, 236 pp. \$1.50) points out that we now see the social needs as was not seen years ago. He states in part: "The preservation of our democracy demands a new degree of social intelligence and the schools have their definite part in helping to build it. Our pupils must study social problems as we of this generation did not in our day. And as they get older, say from the upper elementary grades onward, they must increasingly study live problems. For as the young (or the old) learn to play the piano by practicing on the piano, not by practicing with a tennis racquet or a golf club, so they learn to deal with live problems only by working with live problems. And the problems they study have to be not only live, that is controversial, but as closely as possible of the very kind that will later arise. Otherwise what is learned will lack pertinent application. Our united parents must then support in the schools the genuine study of controversial issues. There are those who oppose this. The reason, apparently, for their opposition is that they think of study as being a merely passive and receptive process, the acceptance by the pupil of an authoritative answer to the problem set out in the textbook or expounded by the teacher.

"In times past, study was this sort of process and education then was simply indoctrination. But that kind of study belongs to the past. The parent must be alert to the danger that teaching may be of this indoctrinating sort, and its members must demand a higher and better type of teaching. However, the obligation still holds that pupils must learn to study all currently advocated doctrines. Otherwise, they grow up ignorant of the strengths and weaknesses of these doctrines and therefore unable to withstand the demagogue



who likes to play upon fear and prejudice. The remedy for bad thinking is fuller and more adequate thinking.

**MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATION ABSTRACTS TEXTBOOKS**—Last December 11, the *New York Times* contained a statement that the National Association of Manufacturers had employed Dr. Ralph W. Robey of Columbia University to abstract some 800 public-school textbooks "so that its members might move against any that are found prejudicial to our form of government, our society, or to the system of free enterprise." In the February, 1941, issue of *Social Education* on pages 87 to 90, Dr. Erling Hunt discusses three statements; the one in the *New York Times*, the statement made on January 2, 1941 by fourteen members of the faculty of Harvard Graduate School of Education, and "the full and reassuring explanation immediately issued by the National Association of Manufacturers in response to the Harvard statement." On pages 134 to 140 of the same issue, these three statements are given in full. Another article entitled "Textbooks, Manufacturers and Schools," written by Dr. Howard E. Wilson about the Harvard statement and the manufacturers' reply, appears on pages 1 to 12 of the January, 1941 issue of *The Harvard Educational Review*. Every principal and social studies teacher will want to read these three articles.

**WHY GO TO COLLEGE?**—The busy guidance counselor and the school administrator are frequently being asked questions concerning problems of the secondary-school pupil who is considering continuing his education beyond the secondary-school level. A number of pamphlets have been published which assist the pupil in finding answers to his many questions. One, entitled, *A Place in the Sun*, is available free from the Union Central Life Insurance Company of Cincinnati, Ohio. It gives some pertinent facts concerning the success of college graduates, showing that of the 31,081 persons mentioned in *Who's Who in America*, only 3,800 of them had an education less than secondary-school graduation level and more than seventy per cent of the entire group were college graduates. In addition the pamphlet gives a large list of colleges and universities showing approximate charges for tuition, board and room, clothes and miscellaneous expenses together with the total minimum and total average cost in each per year.

**A MANUAL OF SCHOOL CITIZENSHIP**—Each Spring the Saginaw Rotary Club annually presents a Rotary cup to the secondary schools of the city on the basis of meritorious qualities of citizenship as shown by the student bodies during the year. Last year a group of citizens composed of a member of the P. T. A., one teacher, a member of the Board of Education, a Rotarian, an alumnus, and a business man acted as a committee to rate the citizenship of the student body each year. In order that this committee might have definite criteria by which to judge citizenship, it was proposed that a *Manual of Conduct* be created by the student body of the Saginaw High School. The student council discussed plans for creating this manual, and thirty definite issues or activities were mentioned by which codes of conduct should be developed. In general, these thirty types of behavior or issues fell under three heads: inter-scholastic contests, school productions and student conduct in school. The manual was co-operatively developed by the pupils and the faculty on an organizational basis. Each club, class, and society worked on the part of the manual which it was best qualified to do. As a result, the citizenship committee has a definite standard to judge the school by, and the student body in developing the manual know what the judges expect of them.

The outline of the manual contains codes on the following: Interscholastic Contests;—football, basketball, baseball, track, tennis, golf, and rifle team; School Productions;—plays, musical programs, intra-mural games, and school parties; Pupil Conduct at School;—hall behavior, class etiquette, fire drill,

general traffic, candy and candy counter, bicycle riding, use of automobiles, pupil-teacher relations, tardiness and absence, lettermen, assembly, and respect for the flag.

**TEACHING VALENCE IN CHEMISTRY**—The solution of many difficult chemistry fundamentals has been made possible by the recently patented teaching device known as the Bryan's Valence Blocks. It resembles a jigsaw puzzle or cut out making pleasant and profitable recreation out of hard mental gymnastics in chemistry. The beginning chemistry pupil simply fits the blocks together reading off equations, formulas, and molecular weights, ionization, valence, laws of acids, bases and salts, and strength of reactions. The blocks numbering some 200 geometric figures, each one representing some element or radical frequently used in general inorganic chemistry, consist of circles, squares, triangles, rectangles, and ovals. Each has a varying number of arms corresponding to the valence. Positive ion arms are pointed and negative ion arms are slotted. The blocks are labeled with the chemical symbol, atomic or molecular weight and name. They are colored various shades of red and blue indicating litmus reaction, metal or non-metal. Bright pupils find these blocks an economy in learning while average pupils may find them the visual means of grasping the difficult fundamental concepts of chemistry by manipulating and arranging something definite and tangible, namely the block figures. Literally thousands of formulas and equations are possible by fitting different blocks together and reading off the results so obtained. Dr. A. H. Bryan of the chemistry department of Baltimore City (Md.) College conceived the idea. The Porter Chemical Company of Hagerstown, Maryland, is sponsoring their manufacture and production, and some of the scientific supply houses will have charge of their distribution to schools all over the country. The blocks sell for one dollar per set.

**LAND OF LIBERTY**—*Land of Liberty* is stirring history. It brings to the screen in human terms what democracy has meant to Americans. It gains a deeper significance in the light of the present necessity to defend and advance democracy. It epitomizes more than a century and a half of American history in a feature motion picture that runs an hour and thirty-eight minutes on the screen. It is the work of the entire motion picture industry. It is composed of material taken from motion pictures produced in American studios and actually shown in American theatres, illustrating how thoroughly the industry has covered American history in its regular entertainment service. By selecting sequences from 112 different feature pictures and shorts, plus newsreels, Cecil B. DeMille has brought to the screen in vivid flashes the story of men and women who struggled to attain and defend American liberties. The producers will receive no revenue from these showings; all the rental receipts beyond the cost of distribution will be devoted to emergency welfare work. Ask your local theatre manager whether he has booked this picture. Urge him to notify you of the exact date well in advance. *Land of Liberty* should be seen by every school pupil, every college student, every worker in the defense program, every citizen, because it will make them proud to be Americans. It reveals in human terms what democracy means to us. It shows what a stake each of us had in our land of liberty at a moment when the American way is being challenged as never before. In Williamsport, Pennsylvania, where there was a three-day engagement, the school authorities arranged for the senior high-school pupils to see it one day, the junior high schools the next and the remaining grades the third. This plan was tried successfully there and can be used advantageously in your community.

**NEW CURRICULUM STUDY GUIDES**—Supervisors and administrators will be especially interested in several recent publications of the Curriculum Laboratory, University of Oregon. Study guides in each of the fields of social studies, language arts, science, and mathematics are built around a democratic phil-

osophy, current practices and specific procedures for developing the school program. These publications are mimeographed and may be secured from the University of Oregon Co-operative Store (Eugene) for 40c, 35c, 25c, and 25c respectively. Two other publications, *Units of Work*, (35c) and *Planning and Teaching Curriculum Units*, (25c) are designed to be used directly with teachers in improving instruction and planning units of work. These include a philosophy of unit organization, specific suggestions on activities, materials, and the development of the unit in the school. Many administrators have requested that their schools be put on the mailing list for the *Curriculum Bulletin*. It is mimeographed and distributed at cost. Approximately twenty bulletins are planned for 1940-41 with a total list price of not less than \$7.50. These may be secured for \$6.00 on a subscription basis. All those not out of print for 1939-40 may be secured for \$4.25 (regular list price, \$5.25). Subscriptions and orders for special numbers should be sent to the University Co-operative Store, Eugene. A complete, annotated list of bulletins for 1939-40 and 1940-41 may be secured from the same source.

**RADIO PROGRAMS FOR THE SCHOOL**—Additional "Cavalcade of America" programs are now available on either 12-inch or 16-inch records (78 rpm or 33 1/3 rpm). There is no advertising on these records except for the original statement that Du Pont presents the program. These radio dramatizations of important personalities and events in American history will appeal to pupils in junior or senior high schools and are particularly pertinent for classes in American history, civics, and American literature or dramas. The added programs are: *Robert E. Lee*, *Benedict Arnold*, *Sam Houston*, *Thomas Paine*, *Jane Addams of Hull House*, *Nancy Hanks*, *Susan B. Anthony*, *Walter Reed*.

**MAKING AND USING FILM SLIDES**—Teachers who are interested in making and using film slides should read *The Use and Production of Sound and Silent Filmslides, Miniature Slides and Micro-films in Schools*, by Orlin D. Trapp of the Waukegan (Illinois) Township Secondary Schools. A summary of this research will be sent to anyone sending a large self-addressed stamped envelope to Mr. Trapp. It is also available in the form of a micro-film at cost (\$1.63) from the American Documentation Institute, Science Service, 2101 Constitution Avenue, Washington, D. C.

**STUDENT SELF-GOVERNMENT**—"Young men respond half-heartedly to appeals to defend the American way of life because youth does not know what democracy is," says Dr. Earl C. Kelly, Supervisor of Secondary Education in Detroit and Associate Professor of Education at Wayne University, in a study just published by National Self-Government Committee, 80 Broadway, New York, New York, entitled *Student Co-operation—A Report of Student Government in High Schools*, (20 pages). Too often, Dr. Kelly's investigation disclosed, so-called Self-Government in the schools was a sham. The study includes results of a survey in schools enrolling nearly two million pupils, conducted by the committee, showing that few schools encourage whole-hearted participation in government by all students. Of the 1,431 secondary schools and junior colleges reporting some form of student participation in government, over eighty-six per cent give the school principal the right to veto all student government decisions. Most schools establish restrictions which severely limit the number of students eligible for office. Not even the largest schools are equipped with a teacher whose full time is given to supervising and promoting student affairs.

**YOUTH AND NATIONAL DEFENSE**—The American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education has just issued a pamphlet entitled, *Next Steps in National Policy for Youth*, in which a co-ordinated program for local and national action on problems of education, health, recreation and employment, is outlined. These recommendations rest on the foundation of five years of research, survey, and demonstration programs conducted by Commission staff members and experts in the several fields. Herein the Commission con-

siders the problems of youth in immediate relationship to the compelling demands of national defense and makes recommendations as to steps that should be taken at once. The statement was discussed and given preliminary approval at a meeting of the Commission on November 11 and 12, 1940. After revision the draft was referred for final action to a committee consisting of Dr. Alexander, Dr. Dykstra, Dr. Givens, Reverend George Johnson, Dr. Mordecai Johnson, and Dr. Zook. The committee adopted the statement on behalf of the Commission on January 15, 1941. Copies of this 20-page pamphlet are available on request without charge from The Commission, 744 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington, D. C.

**CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION CONFERENCES**—The Educational Policies Commission of the N. E. A. is planning a series of thirty regional conferences on citizenship education. The Commission hopes through these conferences to improve citizenship education in secondary schools, to assist in the program of national defense by promoting understanding of the nature and purposes of American democracy and loyalty to democratic ideals, and to provide opportunities for teachers, administrators and lay citizens from different schools to exchange experiences and opinions with reference to purposes, methods and materials in civic education. The Commission wishes also to promote the study and discussion of their publication, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*.

**INFORMATION EXCHANGE ON EDUCATION AND THE NATIONAL DEFENSE**—A new service in the U. S. Office of Education will act as a clearing house for ideas and materials on education and national defense. Educators from kindergarten to college are responding to the call for national defense. They are examining school practices to see which ones need additional emphasis or new interpretations in the national emergency. Unity of purpose and of action is the spirit in which education responds to the call for a better and stronger democracy. Democracy is strong when it encourages new ideas and spreads desirable practices. A good idea in Maine may be useful in California. To our older ways of exchanging ideas through publications, institutes and conventions is now added another method, a direct information exchange service. The U. S. Office, realizing that the ideas and practical suggestions of school people are of importance to the nation, are requesting school people to tell them what kinds of help can be given by the Exchange, and to tell them what developments in school work are considered important at any time, but unusually important in connection with national defense.

The Exchange requests that school men send pertinent materials at once to them. They are especially interested in materials prepared during the past year or given new emphasis recently in connection with the defense program. These materials might include, organizational plans, school and community programs for co-operative study, adult education activities and wider utilization of school plants, curriculum content and descriptions of classroom procedures found most effective in building good citizenship, tolerance, appreciation and understanding, visual aids, radio programs and glossy prints of photographs with a descriptive paragraph to each. The Exchange will prepare selected materials for circulation on a loan basis in the form of originals, reproductions, digests, bibliographies, etc. A well-annotated catalog describing the various kits and books will be distributed widely. There will be no fees.

**TEACHING MATERIALS ON THE DEFENSE OF DEMOCRACY**—This material has been prepared under the sponsorship of the Educational Policies Commission, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., at the request of the National Committee on Education and Defense. It is a practical working kit for teachers and administrators. It is planned to have six pamphlets giving attention to the same number of major topics. The material has been prepared by a group of authorities in the social studies field with the classroom teacher

and her pupils definitely in mind. These units are practical and are so organized that in many instances the teacher will need to do only a minimum of work to adapt them to pupil use. The cost is \$1.00 for the six pamphlets with discounts for larger order. Single copies are not sold. The six pamphlets are:

*Our Democracy* (about 48 pages)—A teaching unit dealing with the meaning and background of democracy, specific ideals of a free people, achievements of our democracy, how democracy differs from authoritarianism, and tasks ahead for our democracy.

*How May We Defend Democracy?* (about 64 pages)—A teaching unit dealing with facing a critical period, planning for military and naval defense, organizing industrial and economic resources, and mobilizing the spirit of the American people.

*Suggestions for Teaching American History in the Present Emergency* (about 16 pages)—An "open letter" to teachers of American history containing a series of specific suggestions for re-adjusting American history courses to the needs and emphasis of the present national emergency.

*The Schools, an Arsenal of Democracy* (about 32 pages)—Materials for the analysis of democratic procedures and practices in pupils' own schools. For use in homerooms, student clubs, or assemblies.

*How You Can Strengthen Democracy* (about 16 pages)—A challenging and specific "open letter" to leaders and officers of student clubs and student-government organizations. It presents a checklist of questions for self-analysis, and suggestions for improving the democratic efficiency of school life.

*Documents of Democracy* (about 48 pages)—A collection of statements, from current writings and from the great documents of our tradition, on the meaning of democracy and citizenship. A useful source book for schools with limited library facilities.

## The Book Column

ALSO, G. F., AND MCBRIDE, M. F. *She's Off to College!* New York: Vanguard Press. 1940. 278 pages. \$2.50. A preview of college setting forth the daily life that any girl going to college will find and giving actual experiences and the ideas and attitudes of mind on which they are founded. The book describes a community of college girls, arriving, selecting their academic programs, going to their classes, joining clubs, making dates, hunting jobs, dressing for the prom, and finally walking down the campus for the last time in the great academic procession for their degrees. The material has been drawn largely from actual contacts made by the authors. The book should be of interest to the secondary-school girl who is seriously considering going to college. It should be helpful to the school counselor. Parents, too, can, by reading this book, secure a better understanding of what goes on in college and what their daughter will encounter or is encountering in college.

ARMACOSI, GEORGE H. *High School Principals' Annual Reports.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1940. 180 pp. \$2.00. This is a study of the typewritten, duplicated, and printed annual reports of secondary-school principals to the superintendent and the board of education, and to the public. The major aim of this study is to render the principal's annual report a more effective instrument for the interpretation of the school's program. The purposes and topics listed in 218 annual reports were examined, and their significance in reports to school officials and to the public is compared. Included are illustrations showing how purposes of reports are achieved, how reports from the same school in successive years are related, and how they are organized and presented.

BUROS, OSCAR K. *The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook.* Highland Park, New Jersey: The Mental Measurements Yearbook. 1941. 674 pp. \$6.00 with a 10% discount if ordered direct. Two hundred fifty psychologists, subject-matter specialists, teachers, and test technicians have co-operated in making this volume available to test users by contributing frankly critical reviews of standard tests. Their frank, penetrating reviews will help all persons interested in tests to make more discriminating selections from among the hundreds of tests which are flooding the market. In selecting reviewers an effort was made to choose persons representing a wide variety of positions and viewpoints among both actual and potential test users. As a result, a very heterogeneous group of reviewers have co-operated in the preparation of this volume—classroom teachers, city school research workers, clinical psychologists, curriculum specialists, guidance specialists, personnel workers, psychologists, subject-matter specialists, and test technicians. Various groups and schools of thought within each of these classes of reviewers have co-operated by appraising tests.

Tests listed include those published by the end of September, 1940. It includes old as well as new tests published since *The 1938 Yearbook*. An effort has been made to review most of the tests published in 1938 and 1939 excluding those constructed for use in statewide testing programs. In addition, many of the tests reviewed in *The 1938 Yearbook* by only one or two reviewers are included in *The 1940 Yearbook*.

For each test, an attempt is made to present the following information in the order given; title, description of the group for which the test is constructed, date of copyright, whether an individual or a group test,

the number of forms, parts and levels, the cost, the number of minutes required for administering the test as well as the actual working time of the person taking the test, the author, the publisher, and where known, references on the construction validation and use of each test. The tests are listed alphabetically by subject fields. The Yearbook also contains 169 pages of review excerpts and a bibliography of books which will assist the reader in locating particular books and magazines pertaining to specific phases of the testing field. A periodical and a publishers directory, an index of test titles and an index of the names of authors of books, references and tests mentioned in The Yearbook conclude this outstanding volume on a new test-appraisal service.

COLLINS, L. B., CASSIDY, R. F., et al. *Physical Education in the Secondary School*. New York: Progressive Education Association. 1940. 120 pp. \$1.00. The report is the result primarily of the co-operative endeavors of the summer Workshops at Reed and at Mills Colleges and the critical comments of many educators familiar with instruction and administration in this field. It states in brief form a basic point of view consistent with the best present-day thinking in education; it indicates a method of curriculum revision, program building as a process; it shows some implications for program changes to the end that physical education may join forces with all education in the task of serving more realistically the needs of boys and girls in the secondary schools.

A *Functional Program of Teacher Education, As Developed at Syracuse University*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1941. 261 pp. \$1.25, paper bound. Are general and professional education correlative aspects of one and the same process of preparing the student for the teaching profession, or are they two quite distinct areas of competence? What experiences are most likely to be valuable to prospective teachers in helping them to understand girls and boys? To know and make intelligent use of the community and its resources? To get the feel of classroom procedure and appreciate the great variety of problems with which they are soon to be confronted on the job? These and related questions are discussed in stimulating fashion by the several members of the all-university School of Education at Syracuse University. In the first two chapters, S. Ganders traces the historical development and describes the present organization of the all-university program. The curious system of "dual" professorships and registration, according to which professors hold rank and students are formally enrolled in the School of Education and one other university school of their choice, receives attention in Chapter III by R. A. Price. The selection of students is next taken up by M. E. Troyer, with considerable attention to the criteria of selection, the methods of the committee on "dual" enrollment, and the continuous nature of selection and guidance at Syracuse. R. E. Strebel then goes into the contributions of the institutional teacher placement bureau. The methods and objectives governing the professional curriculum are next presented by Helene W. Hartley. Direct contact with adolescence by having students take over club leadership in some organization in the city that specializes in leisure-time activities for young people is described by R. T. Gregg and M. E. Troyer. The next three chapters, by Helene W. Hartley, M. E. Troyer, R. E. Strebel and R. T. Gregg, describe the interplay between seminar work and practical experience as student teachers, both in the schools of Syracuse and in smaller schools within a radius of about 100 miles of the city. An example of the way "dual" enrollment works out is described by J. W. Page in the field of science education. In the final two chapters Helene W. Hartley considers the teacher's responsibilities in education and to the profession, and the next steps for Syracuse.



HAAS, KENNETH B. *Distributive Education*. New York: Gregg Publishing Company. 1941. 310 pp. \$2.00. Presents a clarification of approved procedures in organizing distributive education courses, obtaining federal aid, types of courses, groups that are eligible, instructional methods and procedures, recommended equipment, the training of teachers, and qualifications required of teachers. The 35-page Appendix contains a wealth of forms, contracts, and reports reproduced as they are used in distributive education training programs. The book is for teacher training classes in distributive education, or for administrators and teachers of retailing. It should be a real aid to school administrators who are revamping, introducing, or considering the introduction of, training courses in the distributive occupations in the secondary-school, lately given impetus by the provision for federal aid in 1936 for these vocation courses. It is one of the first books to bring together in one source practically all the pertinent information on this important field of training.

HARRIS, ERDMAN. *Introduction to Youth*. New York: Macmillan Company. 1940. 221 pp. \$1.75. Certain guide-posts are set up for parents, teachers, school administrators, ministers and leaders which will help them be of the greatest service to the future of youth and to the youth of the future. The author introduces adults to the modern generation. He shows how older people can help; especially how they can help young people to help themselves. He stresses the necessity of understanding the psychology of contemporary adolescents, supplies adults with clues to that understanding, and proceeds to show how young people can be aided in an understanding of their own problems.

JACOBSEN, E. W., CHAIRMAN. *Education for Family Life*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1941. 368 pp. \$2.00. Glamour-stricken women who wouldn't think of wasting their charm in such occupations as cooking or child-raising, husbands and wives who settle their differences in a divorce court, and a plummeting birth-rate which is emptying grade-schools are the result of poor family training at home and in the schools, according to this latest yearbook of the School Administrators. A Commission of authorities appointed by the Administrators to prepare this critical survey of family life followed a two-year study of conditions with a proposed program calling for closer co-operation between home and school in training children for family life. Explaining the reason for many unhappy marriages and crowded divorce dockets, the Commission states, "Education for girls has perhaps been pointed too much toward careers in lines other than that of homemaking." Heaping a large portion of the blame for marital rifts upon lack of self-control on the part of both parties, the Commission continues, "When we dispense with control in the home, we have at once handicapped a child for his later contacts with a life which is full of laws. He will learn with more sorrow and difficulty when he is grown. The child who has learned obedience to reasonable laws will be best equipped to establish a home of his own. He will not be ready to fly to the divorce courts at the first family misunderstanding." Foundations for distorted personalities which generation after generation rise in the guise of fanatic conquerors bent on destroying human values and human dignity are built largely through improper family training, according to the Commission which adds, "The question of the integrity of the individual personality and of human dignity has emerged as the critical issue . . . it indicates that those who most seriously threaten and seek to destroy human dignity are the warped, twisted, and distorted personalities that have been produced chiefly by the family, guided by traditions and practices that were designed to socialize these individuals."

In the face of a situation where the average family in the United States has less than one child and is no longer held together by stern economic pressures, the Commission makes the following suggestions for close co-operation between home and school in training children for family life: (1) that the school consider the personality of the child which it is training and help the home to do the same; (2) that the school at every point take the home into consideration as a partner whose co-operation is not only desirable, but necessary; (3) that grade-school children study the family and its functions; (4) that secondary-school programs include activities and studies which teach pupils their responsibilities as members of the family; and (5) that adult education programs assist family members in solving family problems.

JUSTMAN, JOSEPH. *Theories of Secondary Education in the United States*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1940. 481 pp. Cloth, \$3.00. This book offers an orderly and systematic review of the main currents of thought in secondary education. The literature of this field has been carefully canvassed, and the theories discovered therein are so grouped as to reveal clearly the distinctive points of view that prevail today. This analysis of the literature of secondary education brings to light four distinct currents of thought or theories. These the author identifies as Humanism, Social Evolutionism, Social Realism, and Experimentalism. Each has been described in terms of its fundamental values, social philosophy, and psychology, as well as in concrete terms of its proposals for curriculum, organization, and instruction. The Introduction explains the method of procedure followed, identifies the theories, and traces each theory back to its philosophical foundations. The book proper is devoted to an objective exposition of each of the four theories under the following headings: The Social Dynamics of Secondary Education; The Psychological Foundations of Secondary Education; The Meaning of Secondary Education; and The Method of Secondary Education. The last chapter is a critical summary in which each theory, taken as a whole, is subjected to appraisal.

*Mental Health in the Classroom*. Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. 1941. 311 pp. \$2.00. The thirteenth Yearbook of the department.

MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *School Administration*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1940. 929 pp. \$3.50. The central thesis of this book rests upon the simple but frequently neglected principle that instruction is the supreme purpose of the schools and that all activities essential to the successful operation and improvement of instruction must be considered as purely contributory in character. Organization and the processes of administration, growing from instructional needs, are thus considered only as a means and not an end in the achievement of instructional objectives. Administration is essentially a service activity, a tool or agency through which the fundamental objectives of the educational process may be more fully and efficiently realized. In the development of this point of view the teacher emerges as the most important agent, with administration in the position of ministering to his needs and thus increasing the efficiency of the teaching process. The author presents The Background as part one, Philosophy of Organization and Operation as part two, The Community Administration of Education as part three, The State Education Authority as part four, and The Federal Government and Education as part five. Thirty-five pages in addition to related material in the first part of the book and the chapter on The School Plant touch directly on secondary education. The book should be a real help to the secondary-school principal who serves also in the capacity of the school administrator of all schools in his district.

- STURTEVANT, S. M., STRONG, RUTH, AND MCKIM, MARGARET. *Trends in Student Personnel Work: As Represented in the Positions of Deans of Women and Deans of Girls in Colleges and Universities, Normal Schools, Teachers Colleges and High Schools*. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1940. 110 pp. \$1.85. A study by questionnaire concerning the number of deans, their academic preparation, organization and staff, teaching load, salary, student personnel functions and trends. The survey revealed that the position seems to be increasing in both number and importance. The conclusion is reached that there will be an increasing demand for well-prepared young women in such fields as social directors, advisers of special groups, placement officers and heads of residences in practically all types of schools. Four functions are reported as important; educational, vocational, group and social guidance. The most apparent trend seems to be a better academic preparation and an increase emphasis on graduate work on the part of the person in the work, slightly higher salaries, and a lighter teaching load.
- ARNOLD, J. I. *Challenges to American Youth*. New York: Row, Peterson and Company. 1940. Pp. 696. \$1.80. A senior high-school course in present and future problems in our American democracy based on the Educational Policies Commission report, *Purpose of Education in American Democracy*.
- CARR, ALBERT. *Men of Power: A Book of Dictators*. New York: Viking Press. 1940. 272 pp. \$2.50. A study of nine dictators, their personalities, and the circumstances which helped them rise to power, written for the secondary-school pupil. The dictators included are: Richelieu, Cromwell, Frederick, Napoleon, Bolivar, Bismarck, Mussolini, Stalin and Hitler.
- CLARK, FRANK JONES. *Finding Yourself in High School*. Seattle, Washington: Washington High-School Principals Association, Broadway High School. 1941 (Principal's book) 112 pp. \$1.00 (10 or more, 80 cents each) (Pupil's own book,) 101 pp. 80 cents. (10 or more, 60 cents each). The Fourth Yearbook of the Association gives emphasis upon the problems of guidance in the secondary school. The former publication is for use for the secondary-school principal and teacher, and the latter is for use by the pupil himself. The former sets forth the background and provides the ideas for the material developed for pupil use as contained in the latter. The latter is well adapted for use as reference material or as a textbook in the study of *Personal Problems of Pupils*.
- The Constitution of the United States*. Washington, D. C.: American System Council, Barrister Building. 1941. 96 pp. 15 cents each or 2 for 25 cents. Contains the Constitution, notes, study guide index, and 100 "true or false" questions.
- FAULKNER, H. U., KEPNER, T., AND BARTLETT, H. *The American Way of Life*. New York: Harpers and Brothers. 1941. 738 pp. \$2.20. The authors of this book hope "to develop without chauvinism, the 300-year background of the democratic ideal in America in order that our youth may have an abiding faith in the values of democracy and a positive resolve to add to the realities of those values." The authors take into account limitations of reading background and vocabulary and have attempted to present a book largely for the non-college pupil.
- GRIGSBY, R. I. Home Nursing. Education and National Defense Series—No. 1 Vocational Division. Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, United States Office of Education. 1940. Pp. 18. Free. The U. S. Office of Education seeks to suggest some answers in a special series of pamphlets entitled "Education and National Defense." This number in that series deals with the conservation of our national health, and undertakes to show how the schools can contribute directly to our national strength and preparedness by instruction in home hygiene and care of the ill or injured.

- HAAS, KENNETH B. *Distributive Education Organization and Administration*. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, Bulletin No. 211. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1940. Pp. 50. 10 cents.
- HOLLAND, KENNETH, AND KICKEL, G. L. *Work Camps for High-School Youth*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941. 28 pp. 25 cents. Describes what these camps are, what the participants do, as well as what appears to be the result of their experiences in these camps.
- KIRBY, W. D. *United States Constitution*. Phoenix, Arizona: O. B. Marston Supply Company. 1941. Revised and enlarged edition. 40 cents. A course of study on the constitution containing specific aims and direction for study; unit tests and review questions.
- LEONARD, J. P., AND SALLISBURY, RACHEL. *Language for Use*. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company. 1940. Pp. 350. \$1.24. Rather than to teach the basic skills of expression and then encourage senior high-school pupils to apply these to the solution of their problems, the authors have selected problems which have grown out of those faced by youth in and out of school through which language is introduced as it proves to be an essential tool in helping to solve these problems.
- LUTZ, H. L., FOOTE, E. W., AND STANTON, B. F. *Getting a Living*. New York: Row, Peterson and Company. 1940. Pp. 687. \$1.80. Gives attention primarily to the third (economic efficiency) of the four major aspects of present-day education reported by the Educational Policies Commission.
- MILES, D., AND KECK, C. M. *Literature and Life. Book One*. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company. 1940. Pp. 600. \$1.80. Composed of reading material related to "The Thrill of Adventure," Part I, "The Spirit of Exploration," Part II, "Our Heritage from the Past," Part III, and "The Challenge of the Present," Part IV.
- MOTLIN, R. R. *Growing Plants Without Soil*. New York: Chemical Publishing Company. 1940. 146 pp. \$2.00. A practical guide book for those interested in chemi-culture. It gives instructions as to how to make the containers, what nutrient solutions are needed, as well as how they are made.
- PUBLICATIONS OF THE U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, Washington, D. C.
- Impact of War and the Defense Program on Agriculture*. October 21, 1940. 27 pp. Mimeographed. Free. A report prepared by an inter-bureau committee of value to discussion groups and economics class.
- Regional Adjustments to Meet War Impacts*. October, 1940. 92 pp. Mimeographed. Free. The broad effect of war and the national defense program on agriculture as a whole and the specific effects of these impacts are considered in terms of groups of farmers in different regions who may be required to make important changes in their farming systems.
- Social Effects of the War and the Defense Program on American Agriculture* by R. C. Smith. December, 1940. 12 pp. Mimeographed. Free. A discussion of the social effects on specific groups of farmers.
- Technology on the Farm*. August, 1940. 224 pp. Obtainable from the Supt. of Documents, Washington, D. C. for 40 cents. The first part outlines the problem, surveys the most important contributions of technology, considers their importance and relation to farming and the national welfare and suggests measures of improvements and remedy. The second part covers some of the same ground but discusses in greater detail the changes and improvements in agricultural practices.
- Radio and the Classroom*, Washington, D. C., Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A. 1941. 98 pp. 75 cents. This monograph, arranged by the Radio Committee of this Department is a series of practical discussions by educators experienced in the field of education and of radio. It is designed to be of assistance to other educators wishing to ex-

- periment with radio as a tool of learning in the classroom. Much of the material in this publication applies equally as well to the secondary school.
- REID, SEERLEY, AND WOELFUL, NORMAN. *How to Judge a School Broadcast*. Federal Radio Education Committee, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C. Free.
- ROSENBERG, R. R. *Essentials of Business Mathematics, Principles and Practices*. 3rd Edition. New York: Gregg Publishing Co. 1940. 373 pp. \$1.20. Designed for one-semester course with 98 lesson-planned units.
- SEYMOUR, F. E., AND SMITH, P. J. *Plane Geometry*. New York: Macmillan Company. 1941. 476 pp. \$1.50. The book is organized in fifteen units, each containing exercises following the principles, historical notes, reviews, tests and topics for discussion. It provides for three ability levels with the exercises carefully graded. Considerable emphasis is given to the functional aspect of mathematics.
- Status of Teacher Retirement*, Washington, D. C., Research Division of the N.E.A. 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Vol. XIX, No. 1, January, 1941. 64 pp. 25 cents. Contains the following sections; the financial structure of state joint-contributing retirement systems, the fiscal status of teacher retirement, mutual benefit and pension plans, membership statistics for 1932 and 1937, and existing and proposed social security legislation in terms of its meaning to public school teachers.
- The Teacher and the Radio Program* by the Radio Council of the Chicago Public Schools. Copies may be secured for 25 cents each from the Radio Council, 228 North La Salle Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- Thirteen Approaches to Conservation*. Washington, D. C.: National Wildlife Federation, 1212 Sixteenth Street, N. W., 25 cents for the set. A useful series of pamphlets, covering thirteen phases of the wise use of this country's heritage of natural resources, adaptable for classroom use.
- The W.P.A. Program. A Report on Progress*. Washington, D. C.: W.P.A. Federal Works Agency. 147 pp. This report on the progress of the Work Projects Administration program continues the series of statements which have reviewed the employment, accomplishments, and expenditures of the W.P.A. The present report, like those preceding it, contains a summary of W.P.A. activities in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1940. Special sections cover W.P.A. activities for strengthening national defense, a summary of W.P.A. airport and airway work, and a brief review of operating policies and procedures.
- THORNDIKE, E. L. *Century Senior Dictionary*. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company. 1941. The book is specifically planned for use in the senior high school and is expected from the press this month. According to the publishers' statement, the Dictionary will continue the work of the Junior Dictionary for a higher grade level. It will contain contextual sentences and pictures which bring the meaning and shades of meaning of each word clearly into focus. Definitions will be carefully written.
- Vitalized Commencement Manual*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association. 1941. Pp. 96. 50 cents. A summary of a large number of secondary-school graduation programs presented by schools throughout the country in 1940. The programs are classified roughly as to topics such as: Learning the Ways of Democracy, The Struggle for Liberty, On Our Way, Interpretation Programs, Youth and Vocations, Purposes of Education, Anniversary Programs, Science, Art, and Music, Community History, From the Magazines, and Bibliography. A new feature of the present Manual is the reprinting of several valuable articles from magazines. No central theme is suggested.
- WILLIAMS, S. J., AND CHARTERS, W. W. *Safety*. New York: Macmillan Company. 1940. 452 pp. \$1.60. Covers all phases of safety education, making use of scientific data. For junior and senior high-school pupil use.

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## EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

### Calendar

#### *March*

- 13-15 Columbia Scholastic Press Association annual meeting. Columbia University, New York City.
- 13-15 Washington State Association of Secondary-School Principals annual meeting. Seattle. Headquarters: Edmond Meany Hotel.
- 14-15 Seventeenth Annual Junior High-School Conference of New York University, Washington Square, New York City. Theme: *Junior-High School and Total Defense*.
- 15 Michigan Curriculum Conference. Lansing, Michigan.
- 26-29 North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary-Schools meeting, Chicago, Illinois.

#### *April-July*

- April 7-9 The Third National Conference on Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.
- April 16-18 National Catholic Education Association. New Orleans, La.
- April 30-May 3 American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation of the National Education Association. Atlantic City, New Jersey. Information can be secured from its headquarters office, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
- May 1-3 Annual State High School Association meeting, Bozeman, Montana.
- May 2-3 Annual meeting of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.
- May 5-7 Annual Institute for Education by Radio, Columbus, Ohio.

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**LABORATORY SCHOOLS.**—Laboratory Schools will be maintained at every level from preschool training through junior college.

**CONFERENCE AND LECTURES.**—Among others, the Conference of Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools and the Conference on Reading Problems for Administrative Officers and Teachers should be of special interest to Secondary-school Principals.

For detailed Announcements, address:

*The Director of the Summer Session*

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